

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Volume XIX CONTENTS FOR OCTOBER Number 2

	PAGE
ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENT	143
Anniversary Theme; The North Central Association Through Three Wars; Special Library Reports to be Called for From Certain Higher Educational Institutions; Budgetary Safeguards Adopted; The Question of Compulsory Military Service; Some Effects of the War upon Public Schools; Some Effects of the War upon Colleges; Contributors to This Issue	
THE SOUTH OF THE FUTURE	<i>G. D. Humphrey</i> 152
FINANCING EDUCATION IN THE POST-WAR ECONOMY	<i>Paul R. Mort</i> 159
A COORDINATED COLLEGE PROGRAM OF LIBERAL ARTS AND BUSINESS	
TRAINING	<i>L. A. Griffin</i> 163
BASIC ISSUES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD	<i>Malcolm M. Willey</i> 171
FOUR BASIC ISSUES FOR COLLEGES OF LIBERAL ARTS IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD	<i>Kenneth Irving Brown</i> 177
BASIC ISSUES FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD	<i>Roy W. Goddard</i> 184
HEALTH AND PHYSICAL FITNESS	<i>P. M. Bail</i> 190
STATEMENT OF POLICY RELATIVE TO THE ACCREDITATIONS OF FOUR-YEAR JUNIOR COLLEGES BELONGING TO TYPE II	192
BOOK REVIEWS	210

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Volume XIX

OCTOBER 1944

Number 2

ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

BECAUSE of the frequency with which requests from outside organizations reach the Executive Committee for permission to meet jointly with the Association at its annual meetings and to have notices of such meetings appear in the printed programs of the Association, the Executive Committee voted on June 17 "that the Association not use its official program for the announcement of meetings not directly connected with the Association itself." Since outside organizations have occasionally asked not only for such notices, but for room facilities as well, it is clear that soon the whole purpose of the Association would be submerged if present restrictions were withdrawn; hence the foregoing action.

ANNIVERSARY THEME

On June 17, the Executive Committee approved the proposal that the general theme of the next Annual Meeting of the Association which will be held in Chicago, April 3 to 7, 1945, "shall be concerned with the Association in retrospect and with the challenge and problems facing the Association and education in general in the immediate future." This meeting will mark the golden anniversary of the founding of the Association.

In this connection it may be pointed out that Calvin O. Davis has written a history of the Association which will be

featured at the anniversary celebration. His manuscript is now in press and will emerge as a very attractively bound volume of three hundred pages to be distributed gratis to all member institutions as part of the anniversary activities. Before his retirement from active service at the University of Michigan in 1940, Dr. Davis had been editor of the QUARTERLY and had otherwise prominently participated in the activities of the Association. Because of his close acquaintance with such activities and with individuals prominently identified with the Association, Dr. Davis was selected to write the history of its first fifty years.

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION THROUGH THREE WARS

It may be assumed that the North Central Association, covering nearly one-half of the states in the United States and numbering in its membership representative secondary and higher educational institutions, faithfully reflects in its deliberations and public programs the educational appreciation of major crises through which the nation frequently passes. This assumption appears tenable because, as the late DeWitt Morgan, when president of the Association, once said, "Included in the membership of this organization is a rich resource: the best professional judgment

available in the North Central area of the United States." Now, among the crises of national significance which have occurred within the nearly fifty years since the Association was organized are three wars: the Spanish-American War, World War I and now World War II. What attention, as revealed in its official publications has the Association given these armed struggles? In short, what educational significance did it attach to them?

The Spanish-American War.—One searches the pages of the *Proceedings*¹ in vain for major references to the war between the United States and Spain. The volume for 1899 contains only the most casual allusions to it. For instance, when Dr. Howard S. Taylor, "prosecuting attorney of the city," who was substituting for Mayor Harrison, welcomed the Association to Chicago on March 31 of that year, he included in his remarks a poem entitled "The Soldier of Peace." The final stanza is:

O, stainless Knight errant of labor,
Our eyes have been holden—but now
We know that for musket and sabre
Thy arms were the axe and the plow.
We will cross them in heraldic fashion
—A blazonry never to cease,
And wrap in our hearts' fondest passion
The good, gallant soldier of peace.

The speaker concluded with the observation that the dreadful belief "that things cannot be settled except by settling them with gunpowder and steel" must go, "and to the educators of this country is commissioned the business of making it go."

At this same annual meeting the question of including commercial courses in the secondary curriculum was being debated. Opposing such an innovation was

Dr. William H. Black, president of Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Missouri. His major argument was that to do so would mean fitting the child into too narrow a groove. To support his position he said in part,

Those men who came here from abroad to watch our soldiers in Cuba, and they who watched them at Manila yonder, say that one of the marvelous things about the American boy is his power of initiative, his ability to address himself to the occasion with a spontaneity, a power and an intelligence that is marvelous. It will be fatal to this country if we undertake to fit boys into a groove at fourteen years of age, or girls, so that this power of initial choice shall not be theirs at eighteen or twenty years of age.

With these casual references the Association apparently dismissed this "imperialistic war" from further consideration.

World War I.—Even though the country was rapidly approaching war in 1916, the President of the Association's address was devoted to the topic "College and Character." As published, it follows conventional lines. Moreover, the Association limited its attention that year to reports on the definition of the Carnegie unit; the reorganization of instruction in English; hours of teaching in high schools and colleges; the character of education in the junior high school, the senior high school, and the college; and the reorganization of the secondary school. But apparently nothing was officially said in all these deliberations about the shape of things to come.

In 1917, with the war only days away, the president's address, although devoted to the teaching of secondary school science, was silent in regard to its implications in wartime; indeed, no mention of the war was made at any point in the address. Moreover, the program followed its customary pattern, adhering quite closely to the usual topical

¹ From 1895 to 1926 the official organ of the Association was the *Proceedings of the North Central Association*. In the latter year the QUARTERLY displaced that publication.

discussions of previous years. Again one scans the pages of the *Proceedings* in vain for any indication of awareness of educational change as a result of the war.

In 1918, however the question of credit for farm work as a war measure was approved, but the amount of such credit was left to the local school authorities. (In passing, this seems strange indeed in light of the care which the Executive Committee has currently exercised in regard to credit for courses taken under military and naval auspices, and for basic training also.) At this same annual meeting a resolution was adopted commanding the President of the United States for his clear insight into the issues involved in the international struggle, and pleading for no hasty peace. Gratification was expressed over the "constant concern manifested by the nation for our educational institutions," and it was asserted "that we pledge anew our institutions to the nation's cause" and that all questions should be made subservient to "How can we be of the largest use to the nation?"

The late Jesse Newlon, then chairman of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula, said,

I hope the war quickly forces public school and college men to cooperate in this work of defining the aims of American secondary school administration in terms of American ideals.

But in his address to the annual assemblage, the president of the Association said,

One's most ready impulse is to discuss some phase of education developing out of the war, or some phase of the war most nearly related to education, but restraining these inclinations, I have chosen to present to you some aspects of the work of this Association with which perhaps you are perfectly familiar, but which I hope to use as a background for two or three suggestions looking toward the future when we can again take up constructive plans after

this national and international struggle is happily over.

Whereupon "some method of standardization [of secondary schools] other than through material equipment and mechanical organization alone," and the training of teachers were then discussed. Only at the close of his address did the speaker project his remarks into the general matrix of the war when he said,

On the schools has fallen an unusual burden. Against great odds and at a time when attention is turned chiefly to the mastery of physical foes, the minds of young people must be kept responsive to spiritual impulses and yet must be trained to alertness in national service.

Before the annual meeting adjourned, two addresses keyed specifically to the war were heard; namely, "Relation of Finance to the War," and "The War in Relation to the Schools." The former dealt with the business aspects of finance in wartime and the contribution businessmen were making, and the latter primarily with "the world-old problem of making citizens."

When the Association met in the spring of 1919, World War I had been over for approximately five months. It is interesting to note the lack of heavy emphasis upon its meaning for education. In the presidential address attention was given to the lessons of the war in regard to physical fitness, and the need for "suitable compulsory courses of physical training embracing the advantages of play as a desirable medium of exercise" was pointed out. Other reports and papers dealt with the effects of the war on vocational guidance, and federal participation in such matters as teacher placement as an outgrowth of the work of the United States Employment Service.

At this annual meeting the report of a special committee, "The Effect of the War on Secondary Schools," was re-

ceived, covering the period from October, 1916, to October, 1918. A questionnaire addressed to member high schools had been used, in which six main topics were listed, as follows:

1. Changes in curricular offerings and in freedom accorded pupils in making elections among these offerings.
2. The extent of the actual increases and decreases in pupil elections of the various subjects.
3. The kinds of school organizations of a quasi-wartime character which were perfected during the twenty-four months under consideration.
4. Changes in teacher conditions.
5. Changes in the organization of the school year.
6. The extent to which the war had interfered with building programs, extensions of school activities, and additions to material equipment.

In regard to federal participation in teacher placement, A. A. Reed spoke in part as follows:

The age of decentralization of educational control and exclusively non-governmental effort seems to be passing just as the period of our national aloofness from world affairs is passing. The era just past has done a wonderful work and we can build securely on the firm foundation laid. But shall we for that reason refuse the coming of the new?

Here, then, was a broad implication for education—a generalization from the war. It remained, however, for the late Lotus D. Coffman to offer the major paper on the probable effects of the war upon the schools. Under the title, "The Influence of the War on the Public Schools," he emphasized certain weaknesses which the war had disclosed; such as, the extent of illiteracy in this country, inequalities in education, need for wholesale physical training, need for proper use of leisure time, and needed improvement of teachers. He advocated federal subsidization of education under local control, and a Department of Education in the federal government to help overcome such weaknesses.

He admitted that they then stood too close to the war to predict with confidence, and closed with this thought:

This, I believe, is the most strategic moment in the history of American education. This is the time when we should present a solid front for an educational system, adequately supported, which will ensure that social solidarity necessary to the perpetuation of true democratic ideals and democratic institutions. If we, as teachers and educators, lose this opportunity, then, in my opinion, it will be to our everlasting shame.

From the foregoing paragraphs the reader may sense the reaction of the Association to the worst war the world had then endured. Clearly, its significance for education was not anticipated. Educational leadership at that time was denied the perspective which has since intervened between Versailles and Pearl Harbor.

World War II.—In 1940 the Association was yet in the general mood induced by the depression. Much attention was still being given to the plight of youth and to efforts to relieve it through the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. and the like. National defense, however, was stirring as a topic of discussion, and the late Irving Maurer made a plea for stability of thinking and of teaching "in dangerous times." He said,

Let us remember that good education should arouse in youth a consciousness of the importance of truth-loving, of moral integrity, and of hopefulness. This is no time for whining, for gloomy faces, for propagandizing, for winking at slovenliness or dishonesty in academic work. If we teachers keep our classrooms inviolate from cynicism, if we show that we ourselves believe that truth and goodness have not been dethroned and that life holds great things for young people who work hard and keep brave, the schools and colleges and our beloved America will come out all right.

When the Association met in March, 1941, Pearl Harbor was only eight months away; but totalitarianism was pressing heavily upon North Central

minds. Again Dr. Maurer, then president of the Association, spoke:

The mind is what we're after, brains, intellect, thoughtfulness. How America needs it today in the midst of an insane world! How it needs intellectual courage, not for 15 percent but for 100 percent of our youth, and for adult citizenship, too. Democracy is not saved simply by giving courses about it. Democracy is saved when our youth are made intellectually alive, when they respect facts, when they can recognize stupidity and dishonesty as deadly foes.

And now the official pages of the Association begin to be crowded with discussions of selective service in relation to educational institutions, inter-American unity, education for democracy, the educational requirements of the Armed Services, and the like.

In March, 1942, we had been at war five months. The late DeWitt S. Morgan, then president of the Association, referred to the inescapability of the "all-out prosecution of a cruel war," and George W. Rosenlof, executive secretary of the Association, sounded the key-note of the relation of the Association to such an effort when, writing editorially in the July, 1942, issue of the QUARTERLY he said,

That our Government is conscious of the importance of the schools in this crisis is evidenced by its oft-repeated demand for educational leaders to participate in the many governmental agencies now devoted to an "all-out" prosecution of the war effort. Our schools are becoming the training grounds for soldiers, sailors, and marines, for forces that will fight on land and sea and in the air. The Government is delegating to our educational leaders the introduction of war and defense training programs. Our schools are being turned over to every sort of industrial activity. Our technical and professional schools and colleges are being taken over and are being used for purposes of training every conceivable kind of war and defense worker. In all of this, our Association must assume leadership and offer the services of all of its outstanding workers. No regulations can stand in the way during this national and world-wide crisis. We must

be prepared to answer these demands of our Government.

The foregoing quotation truly mirrors the attitude—and the continuing efforts—of the Association since December, 1941. Every Commission, every committee,—and the Executive Committee sitting repeatedly each twelve-month,—has rendered consecrated service to the cause of democracy through education in wartime. Some of the problems have been most complex—a depreciated teacher supply, pre-induction training, education in the Armed Services and equitable credit for the same, acceleration of educational programs, none has been simple. But the Association has carried on, and now is turning to the educational implications of all of these wartime experiences for the post-war years.

The subject under consideration here is worthy of careful historical research. If institutions are but the extended shadows of men, how constructively have the men of the North Central Association translated three wars, their causes and consequences, into their meaning for education?

HARLAN C. KOCH

SPECIAL LIBRARY REPORTS TO BE
CALLED FOR FROM CERTAIN HIGHER
EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

When the Board of Review of the Commission on Colleges and Universities surveyed the results of the library study which had been authorized in 1940 and recently completed,¹ it was agreed that all institutions which fall in any of the following categories should be asked to file special reports on library.

1. Institutions whose percentile standings on holdings of reference books, holdings of period-

¹ D. M. Mackenzie and A. J. Brumbaugh, "An Analysis of the Library Data of the Higher Institutions of the North Central Association for the Year 1941-42," NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, XVIII (April, 1944), 293-308.

icals, expenditures for books, or expenditures for salaries were in the lowest decile, based on norms for all institutions in the respective groups.

2. Institutions which offer graduate work leading to the master's degree and whose standing on any one or more of the library items considered significant for graduate work was below the 60th percentile.

3. Institutions which offer graduate work leading to the doctor's degree and whose standing on any one or more of the library items considered significant for graduate work was below the 80th percentile.

In accordance with the foregoing action eighty-three institutions have been requested to file special library reports this year. Fifty-five institutions are included in the first category, twenty-one in the second, and seven in the third.

BUDGETARY SAFEGUARDS ADOPTED

At its June meeting the Executive Committee adopted a report submitted by the Committee on Policies and Plans whereby "budget requests of all expending agencies shall hereafter be submitted to the Committee on Policies and Plans for its information and study, this committee to submit tentative budget requests together with its recommendations to the Executive Committee at the time of the Annual Meeting, the Executive Committee to take final action on the budget at its last regular meeting prior to the closing of the fiscal year." A second recommendation was also approved. It provides "that the budget for the ensuing year, 1944-45, be such as to come within the anticipated receipts of the Association for that year [with the exception of the publication of the forthcoming *History of the North Central Association*, by C. O. Davis, which is a special item].". Finally, it was voted "that all new items for inclusion in any proposed budget and involving major expenditures by any expending agency shall prior to final approval be sub-

mitted to the Executive Committee together with a detailed statement of the nature of the project and the estimated cost for carrying on the same." Forms for submitting budgetary information to the Committee on Policies and Plans have been drawn up.

THE QUESTION OF COMPULSORY MILITARY SERVICE

Inasmuch as conscription for universal military service is very much alive, a recent announcement by the American Council on Education that a comprehensive study of the historical background of compulsory military service is under way should attract wide attention. According to this announcement, George Fort Milton, editor, historian, and economist has been engaged to make the study. The project, which is being financed by the Committee on Youth Problems of the Council under the chairmanship of Henry I. Harriman, was requested by representatives of all the constituent members of the Council at a conference in Washington on May 4, 1944.

Dr. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, said, "Inasmuch as several bills are now before the Congress proposing legislation to make mandatory one uninterrupted year of military training for young men eighteen years of age, the American people will soon be faced with the question of deciding whether this country needs continued universal military conscription. We must, therefore, have the light of experience upon which to base our decision. This matter, obviously, is one of particular concern to educators. We believe that the history of conscription throughout the world provides one sound basis for evaluating the present proposals."

Mr. Milton is analyzing the conscrip-

tion experiences of France, Germany, Russia, Switzerland, Sweden, Japan, and the United States. Particular attention is being given to the social impacts on government and education at all levels, and especially training for the professions. Mr. Milton, the former editor of the Chattanooga News, is assisted by a small staff. The report is to be published by the American Council on Education in December of this year.

SOME EFFECTS OF THE WAR UPON PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The U.S. Office of Education recently released some significant information (Circular 227; 1944) concerning some of the effects of the war upon public schools. As the release of millions of workers from war industries becomes imminent, everywhere will the schools have to face the implications of the return of thousands of boys and girls. Indeed before this issue of the QUARTERLY reaches its readers, the early results of the campaign to encourage high school students to return to school will have been felt.

Below are some of the facts published by the U.S. Office of Education as indicated in the preceding paragraphs:

Probably the most serious effect of the war on the public schools has been the draining of approximately one-third of the trained teachers into other fields of work, leaving the children to be taught by anyone who could qualify for an emergency certificate. This means a very large number of children will receive a poorer quality of education.

With the greatly decreased enrollments in teacher-training institutions, the normal supply of new well-trained teachers will be very small for a number of years. Therefore, the period of poor teaching will be prolonged after the war, until the returning teachers can bring their training up to date and normal size classes are graduated from teacher-training institutions.

Another serious effect has been the draining of over half a million boys, fifteen years

of age and over, who otherwise would have been in school this year completing their high-school education. This fact seems to indicate that there will be a need for a greatly increased educational program for older youths and adults after the war.

There were almost 1,700,000 fewer students fifteen years of age and over in high school in 1943 than in 1940.

The situation with respect to turn-over of teachers and the qualifications of those employed is steadily growing worse, although only about 1 percent of the positions are actually unfilled. The rural school systems have had a much harder time than the cities. Increasing salaries is still the method used most often to meet the problem of teacher shortages and is probably the most effective solution to the problem.

The downward trend in public-school enrollments continued with increasing intensity, as the effect of the war became greater. There were 2,157,000 fewer pupils enrolled in the public-school system for 1943-44 than in 1939-40, 1,317,000 elementary and 840,000 high school.

The decrease in enrollment in public school systems in 1943-44 as compared with 1942-43 was approximately two-thirds of a million pupils (664,000), more than half of whom (381,000) were in the last four high-school grades.

The total enrollment of 1943-44 was 23,276,000, approximately what it was in 1921-22 (23,239,227).

In 1943-44 the elementary school enrollment was 17,515,000, approximately what it was in 1913-14 (17,330,548). The decrease in the elementary school enrollment has been going on since 1929-30, when there were 21,278,593 pupils enrolled. The high school enrollment for 1943-44 was 5,761,000, approximately equal to that of 1933-34 (5,669,156). The peak year was 1940-41, when 6,713,913 pupils were enrolled in high school. If the pre-war trends had continued to operate, there would have been approximately 583,000 more pupils enrolled in high school in 1943-44 than there were.

This means that there will be a considerable group of people at the close of the war, who should be given the opportunity to make up, through adult education programs, what they lost while working in industry or serving in the armed forces—to continue their education through college as they would have, had it not been interrupted by the war.

In the fall of 1943, 169,700 teachers, 20 percent, or one in every five, were new in their positions compared with 138,000, or 17 percent, in the fall of the previous year. The number of new teachers and the rate of turnover are much greater in the small cities and rural school systems than in the large cities. The urban rate of turn-over was 10 percent, but the rural rate was 30 percent. The group of largest cities has a turn-over rate of 3 percent, and the group of smallest cities 24 percent. The small independent rural school district had one new teacher in every three. The estimates are based on reports from 1,189 school systems.

Reports from 1,389 school systems, as of October 1, 1943, show that more than half of these systems had increased teachers' salaries locally and reinstated married teachers as the two most important methods of meeting the teacher shortage problem. The next three most used methods were: replacing men with women, employing teachers from other school systems, and employing inexperienced teachers. These five most important methods are the same as were used in 1942-43, but 20 percent more systems had raised salaries locally, and 10 percent more had reinstated married teachers to meet shortages in 1943 than in 1942.

In large cities, 100,000 population and more, eleven of the thirty-seven cities reporting had transferred teachers from one field to another as a method of meeting shortages in critical fields. Employing out-of-state teachers was used by 10 to 25 percent of all school systems in places other than the largest cities. Increasing the teacher load was used by 10- to 20 percent of all school systems reporting, other than cities of 30,000 population and more. In cities with a population less than 10,000, and in counties and rural independent districts, 10 percent or more recalled retired teachers—almost half of the county districts reporting used this method.

The county districts were the only ones in which the closing of schools was used by any appreciable percent of the districts (13 percent) to meet teacher shortages. The pupils, however, were taken care of in other schools.

The most important method used by cities of 100,000 population and more was replacing men with women. The most important method used by all other types of school districts was to raise salaries locally. The second most important method of meeting teacher shortages by all school systems, except in cities of 30,000 population and more, was reinstating married teachers.

SOME EFFECTS OF THE WAR UPON COLLEGES

In a companion bulletin (Circular No. 228; 1944), the U.S. Office of Education deals with the effects of the war upon colleges. Following is a summary of the basic data included in the report.

College enrollments before 1939-40 usually increased by at least 75,000 to 100,000 every two years. Hence this loss of nearly 600,000 civilian students from the 1939-40 total is less than the true loss. The extent of the decrease can be appreciated more when it is recalled that the enrollment of all institutions of higher education in 1923-24 was only 823,063. As a result of the decline in non-military college enrollments, the loss to the Nation in terms of technical advancement, cultural education, and civic competency has become a problem of the first magnitude.

Publicly controlled colleges and universities lost 51.3 percent of their enrollments, while private and church colleges lost only 35.7 percent. The total decrease in men students is estimated at 68.5 percent. Enrollment of women dropped 7.7 percent.

The number of persons taking the bachelor's degree has not yet changed a great deal, an estimated 185,740 taking this degree in 1943 as compared with 186,500 who received it in 1940. A decrease of 17,556 men taking this degree during the 3-year period is almost offset by an increase in 16,796 women.

An especially sharp decrease in enrollment of graduate students is noted in the report, the number of these students having dropped from over 100,000 in 1939-40 to 32,063 in the fall of 1943. Approximately one third fewer students took master's degrees in 1943 than did in 1940. In the earlier year 26,731 earned degrees of this rank, while in 1943, 17,827 did so. However, an increase of 164 or 5 percent in the number of doctor's degrees occurred.

Teacher-education institutions lost 53.7 percent of their student enrollment during the 4-year period, nearly all of this loss occurring since 1941. The enrollment of civilian students at schools of this type in the fall of 1943 was estimated at only 72,660.

College faculties declined 5.5 percent during the last year, with a greater loss in part-time teachers than in those employed full time. An estimated total of 118,125 persons were on college staffs in the fall of 1943.

About 12,530 teachers left the colleges and

universities of the country between June and October 1943. More than 2,600 of these vacancies were still unfilled up to October 15. Some of these fields in which the greatest shortages occurred were: Agriculture, 179 men and 13 women; engineering, 143 men and 89 women; mathematics, 110 men and 120 women; medicine, 204 men and 10 women; and physics, 133 men and 209 women. Thirteen men and 8 women were still needed for professorships in nursing, 5 women in dentistry, and 15 men and 26 women in home economics.

An average increase of 1.7 percent over last year in expenditures for the educational and general purposes of higher education was expected by 672 institutions reporting on this point. Schools with military or naval units expected an average increase of 2.5 percent, with institutions without such units reporting less than one-twentieth of 1 percent increase.

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

HAROLD ALBERTY is professor of education at Ohio State University; G. I. ALTBURG is dean of the Highland Park (Michigan) Junior College; P. M. BAIL is dean of the College of Education at Butler University; KENNETH I. BROWN is president of Denison University; JAMES E. DUNLAP is professor of Latin and Greek at the University of Michigan; L. A. GRIFFIN is general office manager of the Johns-

Manville Corporation; R. W. GODDARD is dean of the Rochester (Minnesota) Junior College; ALBERT J. HUGGETT is assistant professor of education at Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Science; G. D. HUMPHREY is president of Mississippi State College; Dr. LEO KANNER is director of the Children's Psychiatric Service at the Harriet Lane Home for Children and is associate professor of psychiatry at Johns Hopkins University; EARL C. KELLEY is professor of secondary education at Wayne University; W. E. McVEY is superintendent of schools at Harvey, Illinois; PAUL R. MORT is professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University; JAMES M. REINHARDT is professor of sociology at the University of Nebraska; THEODORE D. RICE is director of the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum with headquarters in the State Department of Education, Lansing; J. E. SHEDD is superintendent of schools at Scotts Bluff, Nebraska; and MALCOLM M. WILLEY is vice president in charge of academic administration at the University of Minnesota.

THE SOUTH OF THE FUTURE¹

G. D. HUMPHREY

Mississippi State College

FOR some time I have anticipated the pleasure of attending a meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The problems of your area and of the area I have the honor to represent are enough alike, yet enough different, to provoke interesting and helpful discussion.

The development of any state, region, or nation depends on its social, economic, and educational systems. Accurately to apply this yardstick in the present discussion requires that I give you a brief review of the social, economic, and educational conditions in the South.

The South, the term commonly used, embraces all of the eleven states of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, plus Arkansas and Oklahoma which are members of your Association. The South of today is the product of two great periods of development—the one preceding the Civil War and the other extending until the present. The thesis of what I wish to say is that the future development of the South depends upon an educational system that will have as its main purpose the improvement of economic and social conditions and that education in its broadest sense was responsible for conditions today and must assume the obligation and responsibility for the developments of the future.

We of the South are not concerned with the past except for a feeling of pride in the glories of the Old South and except as the lessons drawn from the

past may be used to meet the present and mold a better future. Yet, the past continues to influence the present to an extent that can not be ignored.

As we hear the South referred to today as the No. 1 economic problem of the Nation—and all too truthfully so—we are prone to forget that less than a century ago the culture and wealth and leadership of the Nation were centered in the South. Washington, Jefferson, Jackson, Lee, and Davis were Southern men, products of the culture of the Old South. Before the Civil War, Mississippi had the highest per capita wealth of any state in the Union. Today it has the lowest. Before the Civil War, Mississippi was in the heart of a profitable cotton-growing section of the United States. Later I shall show how unprofitable cotton growing has been during recent decades. The Civil War exacted a toll from which we are just now recovering. Eighty thousand men went from Mississippi to the Army of the Confederacy—a number greater than the total white male population between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, according to the census of 1860. Thirty thousand of these men died on the field of battle or in hospitals; thirty thousand more were maimed or crippled; only twenty thousand remained to answer final roll call of the Army of the Confederacy on April 2, 1865.

When the war ended, the South had lost more than one-half of its manpower and the whole region was in ruins—our farms, homes, factories, public utilities, and public buildings—and the manpower was not available to rebuild the

¹ Delivered at the Third General Session of the Association in Chicago, March 23, 1944.

ruins. There was the great problem also of what to do with more than one-half of the remaining population—the freed slaves. I shall not discuss the days of Reconstruction, but the poignant memories of that tragic period influenced the feelings and actions and physical course of development in the South for many years.

The struggles of the people of the South during more than three-quarters of a century are difficult for one to understand whose life has not had a southern background. In spite of the many handicaps that have existed, the South began in the late 60's and has since gradually regained some of the social, political, and economic losses of the War and Reconstruction period. A school system began to take form. Political control was in the hands of the small farmer class, and cotton farming, for a while at least, was relatively profitable. A new economic order was evolved. With all the problems of the day and time, it is easy to see that the South was scarcely able properly to support public education, more especially a dual system of education, for the whole burden of educating the Negro for citizenship was placed on the Southern States whose economic system was utterly ruined and crushed. Therefore, it is not difficult to understand why more attention was given to the education of whites than to the colored race. The South in fact, was not financially able to support any system of education, much less a dual one; and achievements in that direction have been made only because of real sacrifice by our people. Southern educators and thinkers have long since realized that one of our major educational problems is better educational opportunities for the Negro, and we are working definitely toward that end.

The South today is extremely low in

the scale of national wealth. Even under present war prices and wages, the cash income per family in the South is only \$1,388 per year. The cash income for the United States as a whole is \$2,188. The cash income per capita in the thirteen Southern States is \$342, compared with \$579 for the United States. The population of the thirteen Southern States constitutes 28.1 per cent of the Nation's population. The cash income received by the population of Southern States is 16.1 per cent of the total national income.

The highest cash income per family among Southern States is in Virginia, with an income of \$1,795 per family and a per capita income of \$421. Thus, even in the southern state with the highest income, the figure is much lower than the national average. Florida follows Virginia closely with \$1,754 per family and a per capita income of \$481. The lowest income per family is found in Mississippi, namely \$901, where the per capita income is only \$321. The lowest cash income per capita, \$247, is found in Arkansas, where the annual family income is \$972. In Mississippi and Arkansas the cash income per family and per capita is approximately half the national average.

The value of lands and buildings per farm is much lower in the South than in the nation as a whole. In 1930, land and buildings per farm averaged \$3,747 for the South and \$7,614 for the nation; in 1935, \$2,513 as compared with \$4,823; and in 1940, \$3,189 as compared with \$5,518. In 1940, the South had 46.9 percent of the farms of the Nation and only 27.1 percent of the total value of farm property. In 1930, the South contained 49.1 percent of the farms but only 24.2 percent of the total value of farm property.

In 1939, there were 29,664 manufacturing establishments in the Southern

Region, which employed in round numbers 1,500,000 persons, paid them wages and salaries totaling \$1,300,000,000, and produced goods valued at \$8,200,000,00. The Southern Region, which includes 27 percent of the states, has 16.1 percent of the goods manufactured. The manufacturing establishments in the South employ 17.3 percent of wage earners so employed in the nation and pay them 10.2 percent of the total wages paid to employees of manufacturing concerns.

The South has always been and will perhaps always be primarily agricultural. The South as a whole has a rural population of 65.2 percent, with a low of 44.4 percent in Georgia and a high of 80.2 percent in Mississippi. In the United States as a whole the rural population is 43.5 percent of the total. In the United States, exclusive of the South, the rural population is 35 percent of the total.

In 1940, the Southern Region's 28.1 percent of the total population of the United States paid 12.9 percent of the federal income taxes. The median rate of salary income for the United States in 1942 was \$877; that of the South, \$500.

There are many reasons why the once wealthy South now is poor. The aftermath of war has been discussed. Another important reason is that in a nation predominantly industrial, our region has remained predominantly agricultural. As such we have been compelled to sell our goods in low, free trade markets, yet buy our supplies in high, protected markets. Inequality in freight rate has exacted a terrific annual toll. As an agricultural region, our chief interest has been in cotton, and the price of cotton has often been distressingly low.

While preparing for these remarks, I reviewed some interesting statistics on

one hundred years of cotton prices. Over this long period there have been three brief sub-periods when the price of cotton has been relatively high—during the Civil War when the price was almost two dollars a pound, during and after World War I when the price was approximately forty cents per pound, and during the present War while the price is around twenty cents per pound. And there have been other sub-periods when the price of cotton was less than five cents per pound.

Here is the significant fact: During all of these years, if one eliminates the brief periods of exceptionally low price and of exceptionally high price, the price of cotton has averaged around ten cents per pound. That is, prior to the Civil War, cotton averaged around ten cents per pound; after the Civil War period and until World War I, cotton averaged around ten cents per pound; and after World War I and the inflationary period which followed, cotton averaged around ten cents per pound. Compare, if you will, the real difference in meaning of cotton at ten cents a pound during our lifetime, while the price of everything we buy is high, with cotton at ten cents a pound during our fathers' and our grandfathers' lifetimes, when factory workers labored twelve hours for one dollar a day and a dollar really meant something. Here is a thought for those who would arrive at parity prices for agricultural commodities.

The economic revolution of the South and the restoration of our position of equality, even of leadership, in the nation at large lies in the correction of the very economic and cultural forces which have worked against us these nearly eighty years.

The agricultural South will doubtless continue to devote the major portion of its energies to agriculture. National

well-being requires that we do so. Not only have we superior production capacities for many products of the soil, but there is a national need for many of the products so typical of the South. Southern agriculture is responsible for most of the nation's tobacco, rice, peanuts, much of the early supply of fruits and vegetables and of sugar, most or practically all of the nation's supply of cotton and the by-products of cotton, and an increasingly high percentage of the nation's supply of meat animals, poultry, and dairy products. The South needs a profitable market for agricultural products, and there is just as powerful a need by the nation for the products of southern agriculture.

The United States of America must continue, in fact, to maintain a balance between agricultural and industrial production whereby at least the major part of our total requirements be supplied at home. A cardinal weakness of the European system of economics lies in the fact that agriculture has been sacrificed to industry, and it is only reasonable to assume that at least one cause of the recurrent wars of Europe is the effort to supply by force the persistent deficiency in food and fiber. Farming must be made profitable and kept profitable in America—in your section as well as in mine—lest America become a "have not" nation.

Agricultural production in the South has made remarkable progress through the past decade, and still greater progress is indicated for the future. As steps in that direction, I would call your attention to the widespread utilization of better land-use classification, improved farm organization and practices, increased utilization of fertilizers adapted to soil and plant needs, soil-building and soil-conserving practices. There are still new, fertile lands that can be reclaimed for agricultural uses.

The problem of distribution, which has long been of major importance in the South, is being attacked. The banks have more money than they have ever had before. There is a definite trend toward better marketing procedures, and toward the equalization of discriminating freight rates. Agriculture in the South is on its way!

We realize that progress and development in the South must be associated with industrial development and efficiency. In that field, also, we have made giant strides within recent years. Agricultural and economic revolution is upon us in fact, and we are attempting to rebuild and reconstruct our economics upon the basis of a sound balance between agriculture and industry. We have the substance on which to build.

The South has more abundant cheap electric power today than any other section of the country, and with many skilled workers being trained in war industries, the development in industrial fields is inevitable. With better farming and increased industrialization, and with coal, iron ore, oils, bauxite, and a multiplicity of other minerals providing necessary materials for increased numbers of important extractive industries in the future, the over-all economy of the South will be distinctly improved. Bauxite is already being mined on a large scale in Arkansas and Tennessee, and the aluminum industry will no doubt be important in the Southern States in postwar years. Many new oil fields are being discovered in addition to those already in existence. Our timber resources, though subject to depletion, spring Phoenix-like from the ashes which followed the lumbermen of old.

Comparative cheapness of land, lack of serious transportation problems, proximity to raw materials, and mildness of climate are not the only attractions to those of our industries which are grow-

ing up in the South or are already established. Branch after branch of industries is being put up below the Mason-Dixon line. Of equal importance to the best of these enterprises, I think, are the broader socio-economic aspects of decentralization. As Stuart Chase has so well said, "A factory performs two major functions: the economic one of producing goods, and the social one of creating and distributing satisfactions among the people under its roof." Neither the economic nor the social factor can be minimized. It will be easier to keep the social and economic ideas foremost in the South during its period of industrialization.

The possibilities of the South, I repeat, are greater than those of any other section of the country. The facts that I have given you concerning our economic problems have not created a spirit of defeatism among our people; the new problems are being faced with determination and with the conviction that time holds a solution for every one of them. We know that we are facing a second reconstruction, that our region is being rebuilt and reshaped for a new destiny—one that will transcend the accomplishments of both antebellum and postbellum days. And the great factors of the new development are its natural resources, such as hydro-electric power, coal, iron, gas, oil, and above all the young men and women of our section.

To bring about this second reconstruction, this rebuilding and reshaping for a new destiny, we have one common problem—education; not necessarily that kind of education gained solely in the classroom, but education in the broad sense of the word that will touch all our people in every line of endeavor.

Both wealth and culture are products of thinkers—trained thinkers. The restless feet of unheeding primitive men trod for ages over natural resources

from which modern technologists have constructed an amazing civilization. Thought is an inexhaustible resource. No nation or region has a monopoly of it; none can move forward without it, and none wherein it abounds among the people can remain backward. Educated men, trained men, thinkers, will govern our future even more effectually than in the past. This audience, which a good turn of fate brings me the opportunity of addressing, finds its main interests centered in pointing the way to clear and imaginative thinking by young minds soon to assume charge of our destiny. It is obvious that the importance of that mission can never be overstated.

As a representative of a Land-Grant college, I come naturally as a protagonist of the natural sciences in the progress, not of the South alone, but of the entire nation, for it is not too much to say that these institutions were among the first to bring science studies to a position of respectability in the national educational programs. The appearance of these colleges marked a point of cleavage in American educational history. They came to ally themselves closely with scientific and industrial development and they have fostered scientific research and the practical applications of scientific research far beyond the prophetic vision of their founders.

The sciences must always form the core of technical education and progress; so scientific and complex have modern affairs become that a fair grasp of fundamental science concepts and methods of thinking must be a part of the equipment for leadership.

Science has become part of life and culture in all nations. It is driving out the last vestiges of superstition. It is doing away with dogmatism and intellectual intolerance and is conquering dis-

ease and greatly prolonging life. It has brought almost inconceivable speed in communication and travel, and in hundreds of ways, which all can see, it is tending to drive dullness and drudgery from daily living.

Science and industry go together, being mutually dependent. Industry requires resources to develop and manufacture and process, and in the region of which I speak, Nature has been so generous as to require here no further enumeration of her bounty.

From the point of view of total expenditures for industrial research, our country is approached by no other nation, and the result can be seen in the commanding position of American industries. The situation in the South with respect to the applications of science to the development of industry, it can not help but be admitted, can be greatly improved. There is a real need for sustained study and the determination to go forward in the spirit of self-dependence.

In thinking of science and invention in relation to the future of the South, there is need to control our enthusiasm. As great as has been their contribution to the welfare of mankind, science and invention do not compose an Aladdin's lamp which needs only vigorous rubbing to bring forth a perfect society. Civilization is a mosaic, the patterns of which are made of thinkers of every kind. The great need of every generation is for gifted men and women, whether they be scientists, inventors, poets, painters, teachers, statesmen, or leaders of any type, for only they can set forward the hands of the clock of destiny. Schools and colleges, more than any other social agencies, take part in discovering and developing the gifted individual, and it is a good omen of the safety of the future that education is so firmly entrenched in public approval.

Before concluding, I should like to say a word about liberal education. In these days of war, when so much attention must be rightly given to education for the development and use of technical skills, there is widespread fear among many leaders in the field of liberal education that in the postwar world the cause of liberal education may suffer greatly. Surely, from a long-range point of view it is the forces that stem from the cultural heritage of our race that make the civilization possible which men use technical skills in wartime to preserve and defend. We are not going to lose sight of this fact in the postwar world. Our cultural heritage will still find its worthy champions in the halls of learning throughout the land.

The culture of the Old South constitutes one of the most important pages in the history of that region. The well-to-do planter class in antebellum days sent their sons and daughters to other centers for "culture"—sometimes in this country, sometimes abroad. When colleges and universities first began to develop below the Mason-Dixon line, they aped traditional practice elsewhere. As a result, they often lacked regional atmosphere; they often fostered a kind of snobbish culture. Within the last generation or two, however, the higher centers of learning in the South, without any malice towards what the concept of liberal education includes, have enriched their offerings and brought themselves more in line with the cultural needs of the regions they serve. Of course, in a sense culture can never be provincial. At the same time, a formal culture that neglects its native atmosphere, disregards the mores of the people it serves, and looks only to other lands and other traditions however golden they may be, is destined to remain formal and artificial.

As I see it, liberal education in the

South of the future will not be fundamentally different from liberal education fostered elsewhere, always taking into account, of course, the soil from which it springs and upon which it feeds. The Arts and the Sciences must indeed find a common meeting-ground in the colleges of the future. Those who preserve the humanistic tradition must not forget that there are others who labor wisely and long to discover and preserve the instrumentalities that make our civilization possible. Technical achievement is just as much a part of our American tradition as is the humanistic lore that wise men have bequeathed to us. He is not liberally educated who champions one tradition and neglects the other. Liberal education, in bringing the Arts and Sciences together in fact as well as in theory, will become a finer, richer type of education. In the South of the

future we hope to play our part in building an educational program that fosters adequate training for the humanist and technologist alike. The Arts and Sciences must become one in purpose and spirit for the enrichment of mankind.

The swift tide of the war is overturning many conventions, and when the current subsides the need of high thinking and of high resolve will be pressing both in the South and throughout America as never before. The giant dinosaurs which ruled the world for ages have passed away, leaving behind them only their bones for record. Our prayer today is for intellectual giants who will bequeath to a new world better and happier ways for peaceful living for all time. To convert this prayer into reality is your task and mine, and of every teacher in every school of America.

FINANCING EDUCATION IN THE POST-WAR ECONOMY¹

PAUL R. MORT
Columbia University

THE outstanding problem facing American education in the years immediately ahead is to achieve that understanding of the place of education in the American scheme of things that will lead the public to give it the financial support required for appropriate productiveness. Prior to 1900 public policy was greatly concerned with the finance and control structure. The turn of the century saw epoch-making discoveries of the nature of learning which in the past forty years have shot through the educational program itself as piercingly as lightning through a summer sky. Now for the first time has emerged some sense of the power of good education in the lives of a people and here and there are examples of this powerful education. We have begun also to obtain some sense of the cost in dollars of providing it. Assuming that when the public comes to understand the character of a powerful education it will desire to achieve it for all Americans, it is clear that we are faced with the necessity of spending as a very minimum from 60 percent to 100 percent more on schools. To this will have to be added whatever may come to be required merely because of inflation of the dollar.

With the great demands that will be made upon us to pay for the war and to meet the new standards for welfare, security and health, I cannot see the essential increase in educational support coming excepting from a renaissance of the pioneering spirit that will place education of the young higher in the scale of values than the position it has held

in our times. It will have to be placed above many private immediate goods—perhaps above super-smooth highways, automatic kitchens, a helicopter in every garage. In short, the community as a whole will have to come to viewing education much as an individual family often does—something to be sacrificed for, saved for, worked for unceasingly.

THE CHARACTER OF POWERFUL EDUCATION

The good of a powerful education is such, I believe, that it is not altogether improbable that our generation would place it high in the scale of value to be purchased, if the insights emerging in the last decade were to become common property. I shall mention two clusters of these emergent insights.

Economic Productiveness. — First there is the clearer vision as to the economic productiveness of education. Those who have read the Policies Commission Report, *Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy*, cannot surely any more view a community, a state, or a region achieving below its potential without being thrilled by a vision of what could happen if somehow the present generation would pull in its belt and provide for the rising generation the increased skills, basic knowledge, goals, and habits that are the major lack in so many communities and regions, if not in the nation as a whole. Surely they must see that the economic salvation of many such communities, states and regions could come solely through making the most of their human material.

¹ Delivered at the second General Session of the Association, Chicago, March 23, 1944.

How quickly results can be achieved by these methods is evidenced by the communities here and there that have consciously invested in education to achieve greater material good as well as greater spiritual good. What education through the experiment stations, the extension services, the county agents and vocational agriculture and home economics in high school, has done to the quality of corn and hogs as well as of homes is an ever-present example to anyone who has seen the Middle West unfold during the past thirty years. What are the like opportunities for the rehabilitation of decaying city and village life? What are the opportunities in any community that are unrecognized or undeveloped just because the present generation has not been given the eyes to see?

Spiritual Productiveness.—The other cluster of power-giving insights has to do with spiritual productiveness—with what schools of various types are doing to adapt themselves to the improved understanding of the nature of learning and the needs of society. Those who have followed the state aid studies unfolding during the past decade must realize that the school programs in communities that spend more are, as a group, quicker to adapt. The most dramatic of these studies was recently reported in a thirty-two page brochure published by the New York State Educational Conference Board. It describes schools supported at three levels: slightly above the national average, nearly double the national average and from two and a half to three and a half times the national average. The story is written for the layman who is asked to view the schools from twelve vantage points, or, as it puts it, through twelve windows.

The most striking thing is that the better supported schools while carrying

on what are appraised as superior practices in teaching the skills and basic knowledge essential to intelligent action, are making co-equal with these objectives the achieving of what we might term culturally streamlined persons: persons with the knowledge and habits helpful to good homemaking; good citizens of community, state and nation; good neighbors; good fellow workers. These schools take the development of personality, character and citizenship and these other personal qualities out of the realm of chance. Every day and week and year sees young people attended to by wise observers and guides; sees them placed in a great variety of action situations where their development is tested and guided and where good patterns of action are instilled as a habit. What is ordinarily left to chance or at best treated only incidentally and negatively is in these schools made an integral part of education. These schools, if you were to tabulate their activities or even the work of a given teacher, would appear extremely complex, but to the observer they have the slow deep rhythm of gardens. They are growing places. Their atmosphere is wholesome.

Corollary to this is the finding that the chief difference is not solely in the program of activities undertaken but also in the quality of the human beings in charge of the pupils—masters of their art, schooled in the science underlying their craft, yes—but beyond this broadly experienced and wise observers and guides of growth.

These better schools are not dream schools. With few exceptions, there is a goodly cluster of them around each of our great cities. The largest groups are in the New York City metropolitan area, in northern Illinois and in California. There are smaller groups around our other large cities and there are iso-

lated schools of this type throughout our land.

THE PUBLIC MIND AND SCHOOL FINANCE

From these two approaches to the understanding of the power of education—economic productiveness and spiritual productiveness—have come much to give any thinking citizen pause as to whether schools are not now being taken all too casually. He cannot but ask whether schools as now supported can serve the purpose we should expect them to serve. He cannot but realize that post-war school finance must consider more than just how much more salaries should be paid teachers to treat them justly. It must consider how much must be paid teachers to attract more highly capable persons into the profession and to stimulate and permit those in the profession to make continuous professional and personal growth. Surely the citizens would be moved to weigh what constitutes an ample provision of staff to operate a garden school as compared with a factory school, once the staff itself rises from the mechanical level of field hands to the level of gardeners. Could the citizens do other than conclude that post-war school finance must consider more than just providing school houses to care for our accustomed educational program; that it must consider plant development that will help to realize the more powerful education that is essential to our national life? Could the citizens fail to see that post-war school finance must consider not only the elementary and secondary school as we have known it, but also the needs of younger children and of young men and women?

I believe that once the public mind comes to grips with the essential question of the adequacy of our schools for our time there will arise a popular de-

mand for more effective schools and ways will be found to provide necessary major increases in financial support. The people in communities and states will willingly make greater sacrifices; antiquated tax machinery will be removed to make it possible to channel a larger share of the national income into schools; state and national tax-collecting machinery will be used as needed. These steps will be taken not to be just to teachers, not to be fair to taxpayers of different categories, but to provide the means for effective education. Adequacy of the educational program for Americans will be the chief consideration.

REACHING THE THINKING CITIZEN

The extensions of the program down and up have a dramatic appeal that I think will make their achievement easier than the achievement of a powerful education within the present customary range of elementary and secondary education. It is in this accustomed range that the greatest task lies—the achievement of a level of support for elementary and secondary education essential to the realization of the deep economic and spiritual values which such education is demonstrably capable of achieving.

The task of achieving an understanding by the public of the potentialities of elementary and secondary education is two-fold: on the one hand the achieving of an understanding of what is being demonstrated by the day-to-day work of schools that have been able to employ an unusually well-selected group of persons as teachers and have had money to do things fairly readily available; and on the other, the dissemination of knowledge of what is emerging under such circumstances not only within the profession generally but particularly among thinking citizens. There should be some machinery for reaping

the harvest of the well-favored fields and of the unusual husbandman here and there who finds ways of growing good crops in indifferent soil. The channels for disseminating what is discovered to the lay public throughout the nation should be opened up.

Association of Favored Communities.—One of the promising ways of reaping the harvest is a working association of the tillers of the favored fields such as is exemplified by the Metropolitan School Study Council. This is an association of sixty school systems mainly in the metropolitan area of New York City. Each system pays an annual fee of from \$100 to \$300 which is used to employ a central research staff. With this staff picked persons from the staffs of the individual school systems work together on problems of common interest. These picked persons are permitted to be absent from their classrooms or other duties for committee meetings or for visitation, the expenses for substitutes and travel being met by the individual communities. This year this group has more than two hundred persons working on the discovery of the common sense of the newer practices in the member schools and is laying the ground work for disseminating the resulting information to the interested citizens in council communities. Another hundred or so are working on the identification and definition of needs unmet by these schools. A third group is working on the character of the soil so to speak—the administrative organization, the finance and control patterns, the patterns of the teaching staffs to discover if possible what may be done to make these schools more productive. A fourth group is concerned with the dissemination among all the schools of information about new things being done in the member schools with the idea of shortening the try-out period for im-

provements that now customarily consumes about fifteen years.

Equally promising associations designed to their own specifications could be developed in the fertile fields of the Chicago metropolitan area and in California and perhaps as effective ones in other metropolitan areas and in the Iron Range Country of northern Minnesota. Much more cross-fertilization among these groups should be sought.

Channels to the Public Mind.—Little has been done, however, even to wrestle with the problem of clearing present channels and building new pipelines from these Research Stations to the schools of America and even less to the thinking American citizen. It is the latter that I consider most critical. The evidence shows, on the one hand, that once the thinking citizens get the vision of better schools the profession will adjust itself rapidly; but the evidence shows, on the other hand, that it is with extreme difficulty that an informed profession can lift a school much higher than the concept of the school that is already in the minds of the public.

In summary, emerging insights as to the potential of public education call for a re-evaluation of its place in the national life. The kind of education that we may have is so far superior to what is typical that we can ill afford not to take advantage of it. To take advantage of it will require increases of from 60 to 100 percent in expenditures for elementary and secondary education alone at a time when the economy has been upset by the most expensive war in history. It can hardly come except as a result of a public demand that will accept, yes, demand to make, the sacrifices entailed by larger expenditures. The public must somehow come to understand both the economic and spiritual fruits of the kind of an education that has emerged during the past forty years.

A COORDINATED COLLEGE PROGRAM OF LIBERAL ARTS AND BUSINESS TRAINING¹

L. A. GRIFFIN
Johns-Manville Corporation

DURING the post war years there will be revealed many new and important contributions to human progress. We already know of a number of products that only await the end of the war to be re-shaped to the pursuits of peace. Developments in the field of electronics, in aeronautics, in radio, and in automotive engineering have been widely publicized and are eagerly expected. We know that great strides have been made in the treatment of physical and mental diseases and we look for important benefits to arise from those grimly-acquired techniques.

There are still other developments constantly being born in our chemical, physical, mental, and social laboratories and from time to time one of these new infants comes to our attention as it takes its first ride in the baby carriage of publicity and thus is revealed to the eyes of the world.

I am airing such an infant today. To grow to healthy maturity, it needs the sunlight of public appraisal, and the diet elements of vision and thoughtful consideration by other than its doting parents.

This development grew from the knowledge that it was possible to predict outstanding business ability as early as high school graduation, and that this ability could be developed best by a concurrent coordination of college edu-

cation and applied business training. It is a program of selecting top-ranking high school graduates with fine personality traits, sending them to college for four years, and having them alternate by days between classroom work and training in all of the jobs in our nearby sales and manufacturing offices. We hope the infant will grow so that within ten years, we shall have the finest office organization in the country.

It sounds impractical, benevolent, philanthropic, does it not? I can assure you that we have no such feeling toward it. We are motivated by a desire for profit. If we did not sincerely believe we would get a high return on our investment, we would not have touched the idea with a ten foot pole. I cannot dwell very long on this point, but I can state a few facts that lead to our conclusion.

1. It costs no more to send a youngster through college and to teach him a business simultaneously than it does to wait until he obtains a degree and then to put him through the two-year training program that would be needed for him to acquire the same knowledge of the business.

2. Office executives, who, for the most part, comprise the only group in office work today with a high level of intelligence, are so occupied with administrative and operating problems that they cannot apply themselves to office research. Furthermore, fine minds in office work today seldom stay there—they are promoted to other activities and their high abilities otherwise engaged. Although it has not been recognized in the past, it has always been desirable to have many fine minds in offices, just as it is to have them in research, in engineering, and in law. In the offices of the future, it will be mandatory.

¹ Presented before the Commission on Secondary Schools at Chicago, March 22, 1944. Mr. Griffin was assisted by Miss Marguerite Nieto, College Training Supervisor, Johns-Manville Corporation, and by Miss O'Ray Baxter, recipient of a Johns-Manville Scholarship.

3. The offices of the future will no more provide for promotion from office boy to office manager than the laboratories of today provide for promotion from beaker-washer to research technician. In the years to come, office work at high levels will be performed by employees who have special education and special training, and unless beginning office workers with limited educations add to their academic knowledge in night courses, they will not be equipped to progress very far in office work.

4. During the last twenty years, manufacturing efficiency has improved tremendously. Office efficiency has improved hardly at all. That improvement is to come in the years that lie directly ahead.

I am honestly concerned that I have to make such radical statements and that I do not have the time to develop step by step the premises on which they stand. I hope that for the sake of this meeting you will be willing to believe that Johns-Manville accepts these as fundamental truths. That we are spending the money to help us arrive at the ends I have indicated must give evidence that we are serious. We never embark on programs which we do not believe will pay off. I repeat that I am sorry not to be able to develop these points and to convince you all of their validity, but I must go on and present the program.

I will be assisted in giving this presentation by Miss Marguerite Nieto, Johns-Manville's Dean at Lake Forest College, and by Miss O'Ray Baxter, one of the members of the program. The presentation will be given in two parts. The first part will be an interview between Miss Baxter and myself in which some of the details of the plan and the methods of selection will be brought out. The second part will take the form of a conversation between Miss Nieto and Miss Baxter several months later, after the plan is in operation, so that you can become familiar with how it is working.

Now, I'll set the stage for the first part. All thirty of the girls selected were

referred to us by the high school authorities in the different localities from which we were to make selections. We covered the areas adjoining most of our sales offices and factories between Boston and St. Louis, and between Montreal and Atlanta.

The interview with Miss Baxter takes place in New York. You will have to assume that her high school principal has recommended her to us very highly but that before we sent for her, we gathered a great deal of information about her from people in her community. We have been satisfied with the preliminary information received and we have invited her to come in for a series of interviews. So far she has been interviewed by three other members of the Selection Committee, who all have high skill in appraising applicants. They have rated her highly in a number of different characteristics and they have sent their ratings along to me. If I agree with them, I will ask her to take a series of tests which are given to candidates who have screened through, or should I say, filtered through, the careful interviews. You will have to assume that this area where I am standing is my New York office and that the time is June, 1943. Miss Baxter is now due.

Miss B: Good afternoon, Mr. Griffin. My name is O'Ray Baxter. I was told to see you in connection with my application for the scholarship you are giving to Lake Forest College.

Mr. G: Good afternoon, Miss Baxter. Won't you sit down? (pick up Baxter file and study it)

I see you are just graduating from Baldwin High school. That's a suburban high school out on Long Island, isn't it?

Miss B: Yes, it is.

Mr. G: I see that your high school education was split; that you went two years to high school in Nebraska and then finished the last two years in New York. Why was that?

Miss B: My father is in the heavy construction business which requires that he change locations frequently. He was away

from my mother a great deal because she had to stay home with me. It was not practical for us to move from job to job with him while I was still in school. The problem was finally solved by having me come to New York to live with my aunt and uncle during the last two years of high school.

Mr. G: Oh, I see. You are staying out in Baldwin with your aunt, and your mother is with your father. Where is your father now?

Miss B: He is in Oklahoma City. I expect to go there very shortly.

Mr. G: How many were there in your graduating class?

Miss B: One hundred eighty-seven.

Mr. G: What was your standing in the class?

Miss B: I was fourth.

Mr. G: I think you are to be complimented for doing so well in view of the fact that the first two years of high school, the foundation years, were in a Nebraska school, where I assume the textbooks and possibly even the subjects were quite different.

Miss B: Yes, they were. I had to work hard when I first transferred. Everything seemed strange.

Mr. G: Did you take part in any high school activities?

Miss B: I was a member of our local debating society and of the National Forensic League which gave me the opportunity to enter several interscholastic and intramural oratorical tournaments.

Mr. G: Well, that was good experience. Did you participate in any sports?

Miss B: Swimming, diving, softball, tennis, badminton—in fact, I enjoyed and took part in almost every sport offered.

Mr. G: Good for you. How about music?

Miss B: My main interest in music was our high school band of which I was a member and also majorette.

Mr. G: I'd like to have seen you prancing along at the head of the band. Do you help your aunt at home?

Miss B: I take care of my aunt who is often ill and also take over the household duties at such times. In addition to my daily duties, I have been working on Saturdays.

Mr. G: So you worked, too. Where did you work?

Miss B: The New York Telephone Company branch office. I worked there eight hours each Saturday.

Mr. G: So you took part in sports, in the band, acted as a majorette, had quite a list of

household duties, worked and graduated from a high school that you had only attended for two years with the standing of fourth in your class.

Miss B: Well, it seems like quite a heavy program the way you say it, but I don't mind it. I thoroughly enjoyed myself and found time to pursue my hobby of collecting interesting articles, cartoons, and photographs.

Mr. G: Do you have any college plans?

Miss B: No, I have not. I plan to go to work and save money so that I can go to a business school.

Mr. G: I suppose you're making this application because you want to go to college very much.

Miss B: Yes, I do.

Mr. G: I want to point out to you that this is quite a tough program you would be taking on. In the first place, you'd be committing yourself to a course of action for six years, four years of college education combined with business training and then two years of service with Johns-Manville after you had obtained your degree. You are only seventeen years old. Do you feel that you can commit yourself for six years? That must seem a long time to you, better than a third of your life to date.

Miss B: Yes, I can make such a commitment. I see in this a wonderful opportunity. It is really an opportunity that goes much farther than the educational aspects because it does teach me Johns-Manville's business and prepares me for work after college. The ordinary college student looks toward a degree as an end. He can see that quite clearly but his thinking beyond that point is rather hazy. He expects to work but he doesn't know where nor at what. In this instance, the objective is much more desirable. It carries on through a degree into a job and an assured future, provided I have the ability.

Mr. G: That's rather a sage comment for a seventeen year old, but it certainly is true. A psychologist could elaborate on that point and prove you to be correct very convincingly. But I have asked you a lot of questions. I think it is only fair to permit you to ask me any you choose.

Miss B: Thank you, Mr. Griffin. I do have some questions. What course are the successful applicants to take in college?

Mr. G: Girls will take a liberal arts course which is pretty much standard in the first two years, and then permits a wide variety of electives in the last two.

Miss B: Why, I'm rather surprised at that. I should have thought you would have required that everyone take a business administration course.

Mr. G: We believe the actual business training we give concurrently with the college courses will give a fine business background and we think that the liberal arts course broadens people just a little bit more than a business administration course, that it provides some extra values that are intangible, yet very nice to have.

Miss B: How do we get our business training? Do we go to school for three months and then work for three months?

Mr. G: No, we alternate school and training in our offices every other day.

Miss B: Will the college schedule permit that?

Mr. G: Oh yes, there's no difficulty there.

Miss B: What is the nature of the business training?

Mr. G: During the four years, you would go every other day to our sales office in Chicago, or our factory office at Waukegan. There you would be taught all of the clerical and accounting jobs in the sales and manufacturing end of our business. By actual experience, you would learn the type of work you like best. Then you would use your electives in your junior and senior years to take subjects that would support your chosen work as an occupation.

Miss B: I think that's a fine idea. I know lots of girls who think they want to do one kind of work or another without being sure that they have an aptitude for it and, of course, without having had any experience doing it. I suspect that many of them find themselves unhappily situated because of lack of knowledge of the kind of work they have been trained to do. In this case, a girl gets an opportunity by actual experience to select the kind of work she likes and she will be certain not to be an occupational misfit.

Mr. G: Another very sage comment for seventeen years.

Miss B: Will we be guaranteed jobs after we get through college?

Mr. G: The shoe is on the other foot. Do you guarantee to come to work for us after you finish college? You can be certain there will be a job for you and while we only require that you hold it for two years, we hope, because it is the kind of work we know you will like, work for which you have been trained and educated, that you will stay much longer than the two years required.

Miss B: Doesn't this cost you a lot of money? How can you expect to get your money back?

Mr. G: Of course it costs a lot of money, but I'll be very frank in telling you that we have a profit motive in doing this. We expect to get back much more money than we spend. We'll get it back because we will have educated and trained some fine people with fine minds. The ideas that save a company money come from just such sources. The profit making vigor of a company lies in its white collar people.

Miss B: Do you plan on continuing this program each year and will you always train girls?

Mr. G: I rather think that we will start groups in alternate years. I know the next group will not be until 1945. When the war is over, and the question of compulsory military service for boys is finally determined, we will bring boys into the picture although we will probably always include a few girls.

Miss B: Why did you choose Lake Forest College?

Mr. G: There were three reasons other than its fine academic standing, which, of course, would be a requirement for any college we selected. It was within easy commuting distance of one of our large sales offices, and one of our large manufacturing plants so that students could go to those offices on the days specified and return to the campus in plenty of time for supper. It is a campus college where students can obtain the full flavor of college life. Its president, Dr. Johnson, is a forward-looking educator and in active sympathy with the plan.

Miss B: You say you will pay all college expenses. What does that include?

Mr. G: It includes tuition, room, board, registration fee, library fee, college activity fee, laboratory fee, transportation to college and back. In short, it takes care of everything except your laundry and your spending money.

Miss B: That's wonderful. Does it even include transportation home during college vacations?

Mr. G: No, it does not. If you wanted to go home at Christmas, you would have to pay your own way. Furthermore, we would only permit you a week in spite of the fact that the college gives two. We have so much training to give that we would not want to drop two weeks out of the picture.

Miss B: One of the other people with whom I talked said that you expected the girls to work for you during the summertime.

Mr. G: That's correct. You would return to your home and work in our office in your home town unless, of course, you wanted to spend the summer in some different city where we have an office. But we would not send you there unless you had relatives or some close friend with whom you could live who was vouched for by your parents.

Miss B: Gee, I think I'll try to find a relative in Los Angeles.

Mr. G: That would be all right with us.

Miss B: What kind of work do we do in the summertime?

Mr. G: You work as vacation relief employees. You would take the place of any of our people who are on vacation so that you would be changing jobs every two weeks. You would be paid a full salary in the summertime.

Miss B: That's wonderful. It means that I wouldn't have to look for a summer job. Would we report to an office just as soon as we got through school, and work until school opened again?

Mr. G: No, you would get four weeks vacation each summer. Two weeks with pay and two weeks without pay.

Miss B: That's a very generous thing to do. I shouldn't think you'd have to do that.

Mr. G: I think we do. Girls will be undertaking a tough program. They will carry fifteen hours of classroom work, which means thirty hours of homework, on a ratio of two hours of study for one hour of class, and they will be trained in our offices for another fifteen or sixteen hours a week. It means that a girl will be plugging at something for sixty hours a week and I think she is entitled to four weeks vacation.

Miss B: Well, those are all the questions that I have, Mr. Griffin. I don't suppose I need to tell you how tremendously interested I am in this and how sincerely I am applying for this scholarship.

Mr. G: Do you mind taking some tests?

Miss B: No, certainly not. What kind of tests?

Mr. G: All sorts of tests that reveal various business aptitudes in which we are interested. They will take about three hours to give.

Miss B: I'll be glad to take them.

Mr. G: Come in Saturday morning at nine o'clock, and good luck to you.

If there are any questions about our selection methods or program that have not been answered in this interview, I

hope you will hold them until later. Then you may direct them at me, at Miss Nieto, or at Miss Baxter. However, I hope you direct your questions to them.

The next part of the program requires that I introduce Miss Marguerite Nieto to you, and that really is a pleasure. I have known Peggy for a number of years. She used to be the personal secretary to Lewis H. Brown, the president of Johns-Manville. In that capacity she grew to know most of the industrial and political leaders in the country.

We are fortunate that Mr. Brown was willing to incur the personal inconvenience of getting a new secretary and letting us have Miss Nieto as College Training Supervisor—but he was thoroughly sold on the plan and he knew she was the right person for the job. Dr. Johnson concurred very heartily with the idea of having one of our own employees on the campus and, although she is on our payroll, he has given her the status of Assistant Dean on the faculty list and she attends the faculty meetings. One of her principal duties is to see to it that our girls are not segregated as a group, that they mix freely and are accepted by the other students. She watches very closely to detect any discord which could well occur by putting such a top-flight group of people into a 500-student college. She mixes in all college activities and thus is well known to the student body. She even assists other students in college problems.

The rest of the students are perfectly free to come to her room for a coke, or a cup of tea and a few minutes of conversation. That is the most effective means we know of to combat discrimination against our group from the other students. She can easily control against the display of a superior attitude on the part of any of our girls, but none exists.

It takes a pretty good person to do that. Miss Nieto is a pretty good person. She has an instinctive feel for people which is borne out by her hosts of friends. She has had various experiences. She was born in Paris, has lived in London, South America, Hollywood, and New York. She speaks Spanish and French fluently. She has a very heavy business experience. She is an inspiring writer; she has a charming turn of phrase. I can illustrate that. I was talking to her on one occasion about her efforts to sell some of her stories. I said to her:

"Peggy, how are you coming along with your stories?"

She replied, "Oh, I'm doing just wonderfully. My rejection letters now have some warmth."

But I do not want to underrate her ability as a writer. Recently, Orson Welles presented a radio adaptation of one of her stories—that's big time writing.

As soon as I set the stage for the second part of the presentation, I am going to turn it over to Miss Nieto. You will have to assume that several months have passed since I first talked to Miss Baxter, who, in the meantime, did summer work in our New York office. Instead of my office, this area now is supposed to represent Miss Nieto's rooms on the Lake Forest College campus. It is one of her duties to talk alone with each one of our thirty girls each month and get their reactions to college, to their classroom work, to our offices and the training they receive. If she has detected personality traits that need correction, she uses these occasions to discuss them. Here she is, Miss Marguerite Nieto. Now she is sitting in a comfortable chair awaiting Miss Baxter who should be along directly. To help carry out the illusion, Miss Baxter will be dressed just as on the campus.

Miss N: May I have a sound effect, Mr. Griffin—a knock on the door? (pause)—Thank you.

Just a moment, O'Ray, until I put something on.

(To audience) You've been asked to imagine a lot of things—now please imagine me putting on my housecoat; my blue one. All right, O'Ray, you can come in.

Miss B: Are you busy, Miss Nieto?

Miss N: No, no, come in, but tell me, O'Ray, don't you girls ever think of me before nine at night?

Miss B: Well, there's lessons and study and . . .

Miss N: And the A.S.T.P. boys—I forgot. How is everything going? Is this a social call or something special?

Miss B: Both—I wanted to tell you about my chemistry class—I don't seem to be doing very well in it—I can't follow Dr. Blank.

Miss N: More of the other girls have reported that they are having trouble—is that generally true about the class?

Miss B: No, it's only true about me, I'm afraid. I don't like chemistry very much.

Miss N: Don't say that, O'Ray—it's one of the most useful of the sciences. I remember once when I was in Paris I tried to get some peroxide. The word for it escaped me, if I ever knew it, and I tried saying per-ox-eed and yelling at at the top of my lungs—you know how people think you can understand better if you scream—but I got no response from the druggist. He just shrugged his shoulders and waited. Finally I wrote down H_2O_2 and he grinned and said, "With that symbol, you can get it anywhere in the world." A sort of Esperanto, isn't it?

Miss B: I'll think of that the next time I get discouraged—although if I have to go so far to use chemistry, I'd rather go to South America. That's where I'd love to go.

Miss N: Are you planning to go there some day?

Miss B: I've been hoping that J-M might want to send me some time—that's why I'm working so hard on my Spanish.

Miss N: It seems to me that all of you girls want to go to South America—what is J-M going to do for its junior executives in North America?

Miss B: (laughing a little) But do you think there'd be any chance?

Miss N: It isn't impossible. I imagine all American business will expand rapidly there after the war. But to be useful to J-M you'd

have to know our business as well as the language.

Miss B: That's right—and that's what I hope to learn in the next four years.

Miss N: You will. What else did you want to see me about? You mentioned something else.

Miss B: Oh, I just wanted to talk a little Spanish with you for practice.

Miss N: Fine, we'll do that later—but first, I'd like to know more about how you're getting along at school and at work.

You and Mr. Griffin were in the past perfect tense—now I want to bring you up to the present.

Miss B: If there were such a tense—I'd say we are in the present perfect; because that's just what it is.

Miss N: Are you really happy here, O'Ray?

Miss B: Very.

Miss N: Tell me, do you find it very hard? I was studying your program of activities, along with that of the other girls, and I couldn't help but feel that it is pretty full.

Miss B: It is, but it isn't too much—I love it—and so do all the girls.

Miss N: What about your work in the office; your lessons there, I should say, for that's what they are.

Miss B: They're grand. You know, we used to wonder at first how we would like losing those two days from college—the college is so lovely and so much fun, too, that we thought we might not like it much—now we are all agreed that the change is really good; we feel that we are growing up faster.

Miss N: I suppose that must be so—an office naturally disciplines you in ways that are different from a school. Do you feel any different from the other pupils because you go to J-M two days a week?

Miss B: Not at all; so many of the students have little extra jobs anyway; and then, too, having been scattered in the various dormitories has helped. I hope you won't mind my saying so but while we're on the campus we practically forget J-M.

Miss N: I don't mind at all—J-M has undertaken to teach you while you're at the office. We know you'll have enough to think about at college. Apropos of the two phases of your life, you realize, of course, that our plan is unique in the matter of attempting to integrate your college studies and your work. It's still too early to say much about that, I suppose, but I wonder, have you run across anything at work that was helped by your college course?

Miss B: Except for an improvement in my ability to express myself with some coherence (which I think is derived from my English courses), and my ability to organize my work (which I feel is derived from the necessity for systematic study), I haven't encountered a real tie-in yet, although in some of the work I've been doing, I can see how my math will help a lot.

Miss N: Math will be one of your electives, won't it?

Miss B: Yes, or my major perhaps. Of course I expect advice from you and Mrs. Bean and Mr. Griffith as to that.

Miss N: You'll get it. How do you get along with your associates at the office?

Miss B: All right, I think. Sometimes I feel that I should do more to make them like me, but I'm not always sure how I should go about it.

Miss N: I'm glad to hear you say that, O'Ray. I don't imagine they have much trouble liking you, but it is something to consider. Last week, for instance, I did have occasion to talk to several of the girls. They were still on baby jobs and their supervisors had the impression that they felt superior to the jobs and that the other workers resented it. Obviously, it doesn't make the regular employee on the job feel good to have his work looked down on; you can understand that.

Miss B: Indeed I can, and that's just what I mean.

Miss N: Well, I'll tell you just what I told the other girls. They said that sometimes it is the regular employee who seems to persist in making the distinction. I can well believe it but as I said then you must remember that you are the girl who is getting all the breaks—you are the girl, too, who is supposed to combine social intelligence with a good mentality—therefore, the extra effort, the plus consideration, must come from you, not from the regular employee, who, if she is human, probably envies you somewhat. Don't you agree?

Miss B: Yes, I do. It's just what I had in mind, but I don't always know how to do it.

Miss N: Well, by lunching with her occasionally; by taking an interest in her and the work you are mutually concerned with; by being pleasant and helpful and never, never, superior or patronizing; in short, by being friendly.

Miss B: I'll certainly try. I haven't had much trouble that way but I'm anxious not to have any. And I know your advice is good because only the other day I did something like that.

Miss N: I'd like to hear about it.

Miss B: Well, I noticed the two girls who are regularly on the job I was doing seemed rather bored and tired and I offered to help them with it. They brightened up at once and seemed to appreciate it. The next day I learned they really did because they offered to help me and I felt at once that we were better friends.

Miss N: That's splendid. That's just what I do mean. Obviously we don't want to make our regular staff discontented in any way.

Miss B: I think in this case the situation really improved.

Miss N: I'm sure of it. You know it's a real pleasure to talk to all of you girls, you are so responsive and understanding.

Miss B: Thank you—and we do like coming here—although sometimes I think we come too often—between Norma and I we certainly keep you busy.

Miss N: Between Norma and *me*, O'Ray—you don't mind my correcting you, I hope.

It's one of our beliefs at J-M that good English inspires confidence and respect and we hope you girls will be in a position some day where these attributes are necessary.

Miss B: I don't mind at all. I really know better but sometimes I talk, without thinking. (Looks at watch). Oh, oh, it's after ten—I'll have to run or I'll get campused.

Miss N: Good night, O'Ray, and come again soon.

I know you have enjoyed being in Miss Nieto's living room, but we must not dally there. These are war times and we all have important things to do so I am returning you to the meeting of the Commission on Secondary Schools at the Palmer House in Chicago, where we will be glad to answer any questions there are with respect to this program.

BASIC ISSUES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD¹

MALCOLM M. WILLEY

University of Minnesota

FOR the second time in a decade, higher education in the United States has an unparalleled opportunity to consider the fundamental questions that it faces. The first chance came in the years of the early thirties, when depression created serious difficulties for the colleges and universities. Confronted by those difficulties, the academic institutions, individually and collectively, should have seized the chance to appraise themselves, to restudy their objectives and to evaluate anew their contributions in meeting the needs of the millions of youth in the college age groups. The fact is that American institutions of higher education generally did not grasp the opportunity that they had ten or more years ago; they failed to do what they should have done. They appear in retrospect to have been motivated by a doctrine of opportunism, the core of which was the acceptance of any expedient that would maintain the colleges and universities through the depression years, with the hope that they would then continue their programs in much the same pattern as had prevailed during the prosperity of the twenties. One thing to be said in favor of adversity is that it creates a situation within which self-examination is less difficult than in so-called normal times; the fact that everything is upset makes it possible to examine the traditional ways and to begin inquiries concerning the functions of an institution, un-

hampered by the restrictive pressures of more fortunate and happier days. As a sociologist I venture the hypothesis that out of periods of crisis should emerge those changes that, taken together, we group under the general concept of "progress." I repeat that higher education missed its big chance in 1932 and the years of academic depression.

Now, in 1944, we are in an even more disruptive period. Each of us can fill in for himself the details of that disruption. The point I wish to stress at the outset is that, in general, the problems that confront us today are essentially the same problems that confronted us a decade ago, and they, in turn, had their origins in significant social changes that go back to the last world war and earlier. The real question, therefore, with which any discussion of educational planning must start, it seems to me, is, are we going to neglect our second opportunity to face these problems squarely?

This may seem an unorthodox beginning for a symposium on planning for education in the post-war years. It is more often customary to think of immediate and specific topics which seem to be directly related to present dilemmas or to those of the months just ahead. Normally the general topic of this discussion would be introduced by reference to such questions as: Should we continue acceleration after the war is over and all students on our campuses are civilians? How large will enrollments be in higher educational institutions once the fighting stops and demobilization begins? How shall war

¹ This is the first of three addresses on higher education in the post-war period delivered before the Commission on Colleges and Universities at Chicago, March 22, 1944. The other two are published on succeeding pages of this issue.

experience and war learning be evaluated in terms of academic credits? Will there be faculty members available to carry instructional and research loads in the post-war years? What form will counseling and guidance systems take? What will be the effect upon institutions of the return of students and faculty who for numbers of years have been removed from things academic? How shall we adapt conventional courses and curricula to the needs of these more mature and older veterans? What agency of the federal government should be charged with the responsibility of administering the veterans' program as it relates to education?

This list could be extended almost indefinitely by the addition of similar concrete and practical questions. For the most part, it is by asking these concrete and practical questions that we have embarked upon post-war educational planning. That is to say, we raise certain problems, primarily administrative, all of which seem to me to be posited upon the assumption that we shall emerge from a period of difficulty to carry forward our programs within the framework of the pre-war conception of higher education.

It is my contention that while this approach may be defensible and even necessary for administrative officers as they face their day-by-day problems, it is inadequate as a means of enabling us to look into the future and to comprehend the kinds of questions that we as educators have the obligation to consider. Furthermore, there is the danger that attention will become so generally focused upon these questions of the moment that we shall be distracted altogether from studying the really significant problems which should be challenging our attention.

Before elaborating this point further, mention should be made of an error that

is commonly, though unconsciously, made by participants in discussions of post-war planning. It is the tendency to divide history into sharply defined periods, with lines separating one period from another. Thus a demarcation is frequently assumed between the pre-war period and the present, and likewise between "the now" and "the post-war world." Such a tendency, it seems to me, belongs in the same category as the conception that, as a youngster, I had of the state of the world before and after the descent of the glaciers. There was an impression that the great rivers of ice suddenly descended from the north, sweeping man and mastodon before them in an onrushing flow of chaos and destruction. Actually, of course, generations were born and died without ever being aware that the ice was encroaching upon them. Analogously, the major problems that we refer to a delimited post-war period are not, in fact, problems that have suddenly appeared within a few short months, bringing consternation with them and completely transforming the face of our educational world. They are, rather, the same problems that have gradually, almost imperceptibly, been moving down upon us for many years. It follows, therefore, that most of the fundamental problems we shall be meeting ten years from now will be outgrowths of or variations upon the questions we faced, or should have faced, ten years ago. It is only because of the erroneous tendency to draw a sharp line between the war years and the post-war years that we overlook so simple a truth.

If the major problems that lie ahead are continuations of those extending from the past, then what we do or fail to do today must inevitably be an influence in setting the form of the problems that will exist when the war is over. From this the conclusion follows that it

is all the more essential to be certain that in our thinking *now* we are concerned with questions of such a fundamental nature that they will have a significant relationship to the long term trend of higher education. I have already said that I doubt that the questions most frequently raised with respect to post-war education are of a fundamental nature.

If we turn to the dictionary and look up the verb "to plan" we shall find a definition that suggests the basic point I wish to make: "to plan: to devise a scheme or method for the attainment of some objective." The emphasis is upon the achievement of an *objective*. It is my thesis that all educational planning must start from a consideration of the *objectives* or *purposes* it is intended to achieve and, contrariwise, that all discussions of post-war education are largely futile until there is agreement as to what higher education is seeking to achieve.

In 1936, a committee of the American Association of University Professors offered an identical observation with respect to the planning discussions engendered by the depression and which looked toward the recovery.¹ ". . . the time is probably at hand when the *why* of higher education must receive more careful consideration. This necessitates its interpretation to all who have blindly accepted its values so that they may re-accept them on a basis of fact and understanding rather than as a faith only." That committee continued, "As for those who speak for higher education they, too, must formulate their own understanding of its place, purposes, and objectives. . . . The depression has demonstrated . . . that self-examination on the part of all who are in any way re-

lated to the formal organization of higher education is a primary requisite. Such self-examination is the first step toward a comprehension of the purposes of higher education. . . ." Substitute the words "the war" for the words "the depression" and the conclusion is as pertinent for 1944 as the committee of the American Association of University Professors thought it was for 1936.

The primary task, then, of any college or university concerning itself with postwar planning is to undertake a self-appraisal to ascertain first, what it believes its objectives are, and secondly, how well it has met them in the past. In short, education *of whom* and *for what*?

Some elaboration of this generalized statement is desirable. I begin with a lesser but concrete example that will serve to illustrate the general position that has been stated.

Recently I engaged in extended conversation with a young man then enrolled in an Area and Language unit of the Army Specialized Training Program. The language of intensive instruction was French. It is now customary to discuss Area and Language instruction around the question of whether or not the methods used by the Army are applicable to civilian college instruction in peacetime. One reads repeatedly that the war is revolutionizing language instruction. I asked the young soldier for his comment, and his reply hit straight to the heart of the matter as I see it. He said, "It all depends on what you are teaching the language for." He went on to point out that instruction such as he received was for speaking purposes only, and to meet what might be regarded as colloquial needs. If the colleges wish to train men only to speak everyday French, the Army methods are undoubtedly of considerable significance. But *is* the purpose of instruction

¹ *Depression, Recovery, and Higher Education*, pp. 458-59 *et passim*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937.

in French in middlewestern colleges and universities in peacetime solely the development of oral facility? Or is the purpose something else, which may not be achieved at all, or only in limited degree, by utilization of the language methods developed for special Army purposes in wartime? Obviously nothing is gained in discussing the implications of new Army methods of language instruction and laying plans for post-war teaching of languages until we first agree what our academic purposes are in the language courses we provide. To be sure, these may vary from institution to institution, or even for different groups of students within a single college, but the purpose is the all important consideration and the one first to be discussed before we go further in planning for post-war language instruction. How far we are from clear definition of the purposes of language instruction can be demonstrated by raising the question with almost any group of language teachers.

Let us take a more significant illustration of my thesis. Under the direction of Dean T. R. McConnell, of the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts at the University of Minnesota, a long-time study of student mortality has been completed for the Senate Committee on Education, which is now in effect a University committee on post-war problems.¹ It is not possible here to describe the various phases of this study, or all the refinements made in pursuing it. A few of the results, however, can be mentioned. Six years after they entered in the fall of 1937, only 37 percent of the members of the 1937 fall freshman class had received a degree of any kind from the University. Of those who registered in the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts 42 percent failed to complete

six quarters of study, and of those who did complete the six quarters, one in three had not earned a "C" average. Almost a fifth of these fall freshmen of 1937 had dropped out of the University before the end of the first academic year, and a third of the original group did not return at the beginning of the second academic year. Forty-five percent did not begin their third academic year; that is, nearly a half of the entering freshmen of the fall of 1937 had left the University by the beginning of their junior year. These mortality data were related to high school ranks and it was found that of the students who entered the University in the fall of 1937 with high school ranks above the 90th percentile—that is in the upper tenth of their graduating classes—only 63 percent were in the University and had earned an average grade of "C" or better at the end of six quarters. Of fall entrants in 1937 who stood in the upper 20 percent of their high school classes, only 52 percent had obtained any degree from the University after six years.

Data of this type raise what I regard as the fundamental problem to which our attention should be fastened. If I were not confident that essentially the same results would come from similar studies at other comparable institutions, I would not introduce such figures as those I have given. Such data, as I read them, are convincing proof that something is wrong with our present objectives. Clearly we are not accomplishing any well-conceived purpose for the large numbers who fail to complete successfully the courses of study which they have begun. For an embarrassingly large proportion of our students we are failing to meet their individual needs. That, of course, leads directly to another fundamental question, what kinds of education do the majority of today's high school graduates need? At Min-

¹ Unpublished material of the Senate Committee on Education, University of Minnesota.

nesota we are now seeking to answer that question; the search for an answer has developed into interesting and significant discussions and proposals with respect to general education, vocational or semi-technical education in relation to general education, and to programs of integrated state-wide education. This is as it should be, for obviously any planning for post-war education that goes no further than to bring back to the campuses large numbers of students who fail in large numbers after they return, can result only in futility both for the student and the institution. I think this illustration should make clear the distinction I would draw between the fundamental type of question that we should be forever studying, but more especially in these war years, and the less significant, more immediate questions to which, I fear, greater attention is in fact being given.

Let us take one final example to clarify my thesis. A study recently completed at Minnesota answers in part the question, what happens to high school graduates?¹ A follow-up was made on all who graduated in June, 1938, from high schools in the state. Among the many important findings of this study I shall mention two: only one of every two students graduating in the upper 10 percent of their high school classes went on to college; only one in three of the graduates who stood in the upper 30 percent of their high school classes in June, 1938, went on to college. Presumably the figures would be similar in many other states, and in some instances much less favorable. Why do not these ablest students continue their education? What are the implications of this non-attendance in college of the large

proportion of superior high school graduates? Does it reflect a financial problem? Does it reflect inaccessibility of institutions? *Does it perhaps indicate that the traditional college training is not desired by or adapted to the needs of large numbers of able high school students?* Penetrating answers to such questions as these are needed if we are to understand ourselves and the jobs we are trying to do educationally, now or after the war.

These three examples are to be regarded only as examples. However, from the more comprehensive and inclusive implications that they suggest I would make certain conclusions or observations with respect to educational planning.

The colleges and universities of this country will continue after the war has ended to merit the great faith that has hitherto been reposed in them and which is the source of their support only if they demonstrate through accomplishment that this faith in them is fully justified. This justification will depend upon three things:

1. Our ability to achieve a common understanding of what we are trying to accomplish with various groups of students—that is, upon a definition of our purposes or objectives.

2. Our ability to achieve an understanding of the individuals with whom we are or should be working—that is, of the students or potential students in terms of whose needs our objectives are formed; and to know our students we must likewise know the sources from whence they are drawn.

3. Our willingness to adapt higher education not only to demonstrable individual needs but also to the collective needs of the society which provides for higher education and to which the student eventually returns. In the case of the public institutions this involves consideration of the entire network of relationships that are embraced within a state-wide program of post-high school education.

It is along these lines, then, made concrete through further specific studies,

¹ G. Lester Anderson and T. J. Berning, "What Happens to High School Graduates?" Pp. 15-40 in *Studies in Higher Education*, Biennial Report of the Committee on Educational Research, 1938-1940, University of Minnesota Press.

that our thinking should be directed. Now, under the impact of war, the colleges and universities are functioning in a crisis situation which, as stated earlier, provides an opportunity for self-examination. Now, as we begin the process of readaptation, is our chance to decide what we as institutions really consider our jobs to be. This is not a matter for determination by administrative officers alone; it is a task in which every faculty member must participate, for unless every instructor is conscious of his own purposes in each class every day, obviously no larger educational purposes can emerge. This is why it is important that every college and university that has not already done so should create agencies or committees to undertake inclusive, comprehensive surveys

that will provide bases for initiating the adaptations that a broad redefinition of purposes and objectives requires.

With such an approach as this, those other questions—acceleration, veterans' aid, evaluation of credits, and the like—will slip into their proper perspective, largely as matters for administrative consideration, to be handled in the light of the larger conception of the place and purpose of higher education. Present circumstances, unhappy though they may seem to be, do in fact give us a unique opportunity to rebuild higher education in this country into a far more effective social instrument than it ever has been before. As I said at the outset, this is our second chance in a decade. Are we going to fail again?

FOUR BASIC ISSUES FOR COLLEGES OF LIBERAL ARTS IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD¹

KENNETH IRVING BROWN
Denison University

DR. WILLEY has called our attention to the fact that the major questions for us to answer, as we look forward to a period of post-war reconstruction, are not questions of detail but questions of broad basic policies which need to be re-examined and in the light of that examination re-affirmed. It is true, as Dr. Willey has reminded us, that these fundamental issues are not primarily issues of peace or war, but are continuing questions to which higher education has given only partial and timorous answer. Their contexts change, their climate varies from season to season. We may see them from time to time as of relatively changing significance, but nevertheless the basic issues are the same.

The next step in our thinking may rightly be to separate for examination some of the pertinent questions within these fundamental issues of ultimate objectives, particularly as they apply to the college of liberal arts. I call your attention to four such issues.

I

With all of the legislative uncertainties regarding educational subsidies for veterans, and post-war military training for the young American, perhaps before college, perhaps during college, perhaps after college, one needs clairvoyance to foresee the campus of the future. That it will have ruddy-cheeked high school seniors as before, we may assume; that there will be returning veterans in siz-

able numbers, is likely; that there will be, at least for the great state universities, disabled and crippled servicemen, appears a certainty. We may expect a goodly number of young men and women whose college work has been prevented or interrupted by industrial service. We are told that there will be a mighty influx of foreign students in numbers exceeding anything within our experience. And it may well be that the civilian group will be greatly swelled by young brains from underprivileged economic levels, financed by federal or state grants in the effort to train ability for the community's welfare.

A heterogeneous student population, with diversities of age and background, interests and experience; a campus of internal strains and tensions and, both inside and outside the campus, pressure groups working to achieve partisan ends; a student population with physical disabilities in new proportions, as well as problems of emotional maladjustment growing out of war experience; restlessness and resentment against restraints; pessimism and cynicism with a thousand questions regarding life and its directions; such may be a *montage* of the college campus of tomorrow, with this of indubitable clarity: It will be for the college the greatest responsibility as well as the most amazing opportunity that American education has faced in its entire history.

That our educational and instructional patterns must be modified to meet the needs and the demands of such a student population may stand without

¹ The second address on post-war issues in higher education delivered at Chicago, March 22, 1944.

argument. Then comes the question: What modifications?

Are we persuaded that vigilant and determined effort must be made to re-emphasize the humanities and the social studies within our program of liberal arts? Are we clear that a balance must be restored between these subjects and the sciences, a balance which in large measure has been a war casualty? And if we are so persuaded, what steps shall we take?

In all likelihood the pressure for strictly training courses will be multiplied many-fold and the small college, financially insecure, will be sorely tempted to sacrifice principle for immediate income. If we want to take down our gateway sign, "College of Liberal Arts," and put in its place "College of Vocational Training," all right; that, at least, would be honest. But if we believe in the principles of liberal education and decide to continue under their time-honored banner, then let's stick to our principles, come hell or red deficits.

We do not need more administrative organization, but we do sorely need a revival of convictions within our own hearts; first, what we mean by liberal arts; and second, how far we are willing to defend them.

But other questions come pressing: When once we have set with clarity and thoughtful judgment the objectives of our institution, objectives both immediate and far-future, are we determined to maintain our standards and to hew to the line? It requires no imagination to foresee the variety of pressures that will come to please the veteran and the grateful public behind the veteran. If the government loves him enough to give him an educational subsidy and a discharge bonus and in time a service bonus, surely the college should love him enough to give him a degree? We have heard the argument whispered already.

And if he stands within a year—or two years—of graduating, in spite of North Central Association recommendation and previous agreements, how could one be so hard-hearted as to bring him back to a campus for further work? And surely war experience is worth something—some academic credit!

It will not be an easy campus for either the administrator or the instructor—or even the college trustee. And yet it would be fatal to assume that the administrator stands at the door of his ivy tower, his lips pursed to say "No" to every request.

I strongly suspect that the student on our post-war campuses will be mightily concerned about contemporary life, not so much with a social passion for bettering life as with a desire to see it the focal point of his college learning. And in that desire I further suspect he is right. There are still colleges and there are still courses where the centuries since good Queen Elizabeth are made to contain little of historical or literary or social importance. Too often in lazy fashion we teachers assume that our student is capable of establishing his own parallels between the political problems of ancient Greece and the difficulties of democracy today. We shall most certainly be asked to find new ways of emphasizing the contemporary scene so that our courses are centered not in the historical past but in the surging present. And we shall be wise if we agree to the request. We shall not slight the past, but we shall see the past as interpreting the present.

Another request that we dare not ignore as we consider possible modifications in our curricular patterns is the probable request for speed, a request which in part will need to be denied and in part acquiesced in. Most of us are opposed to the program of the bachelor degree at the end of the sophomore

year. Most of us believe that there should be more to a college degree than information amassed or tests conquered. But having said that, we shall be unwise if we refuse to examine our curriculum and our specific courses for places where time can be saved or content strengthened. Too often we ignore high school achievement and require the freshmen to take chemistry and English and history which duplicate work already covered, with results that are educationally stultifying. And too, let's be honest that there are in most of our course-schedules some courses which are unjustifiably thin and some which are a bit water-logged. Could we use the post-war urge for educational reform to reassess the importance of our individual departments and our individual courses, and could we manage to squeeze out, in the interest of time saved, if you will, or just educational progress, some of the water and a little of the gas?

I assume that all of the friends and members of our Commission are fully acquainted with the report of the Commission on Liberal Education written under the chairmanship of President Baxter of Williams. It is a most forceful and thoughtful document which ought to be in the hands, not alone of presidents and deans, but every teaching faculty member of every North Central college. It has much wisdom for the leaders of the liberal arts colleges of the post-war day.

II

A second basic issue is the importance of a well-organized, well-administered inclusive program of counseling. The need for wise and comprehensive counseling is not new; the need, however, will be intensified and magnified by the campus scene when the survivors of Corregidor and Tarawa and the heroes of Salerno and Cassino become classmates

with the high school senior, still cherubic, still relatively untouched. In the period of reconstruction following the last war we are told that the program of educational counseling was lamentably weak and ineffectual. It will be so again unless with imaginative thinking and foresight we can plan for the needs and the tensions of that post-war campus.

But even as we plan, we need to hold clear that this is not alone an emergency situation demanding emergency remedies. It is an inviting opportunity to test the place of counseling as an integral and essential part of our education as conceived and patterned today.

The heart of the college experience is not the act of teaching nor the sacred and sanctified textbook. The heart is the activity of learning and the activity occurs as we well know both within and without the classroom. There will always be wide areas outside the classroom which the college can have no hope and even small desire of controlling; nevertheless, there are wide areas of living; which the instruction of the classroom does not touch, where important decisions are made and wise guidance is sorely needed. If our colleges are concerned alone for minds, our counseling may be restricted to academic fields; if our colleges are aiming to train not minds alone but men, then their counseling must be vastly more comprehensive.

Counseling must begin when the student chooses or is assigned to the college—and let us hope it may always be the former. It must end when he separates himself from the institution, either voluntarily or by invitation, and then only if the college refuses to take any part in the employment placement of its alumni and former students. That program of counseling must be inclusive enough to cover all of the major campus tensions and campus problems—vocational, academic, financial, marital,

health, social, personal relations, recreational, religious. That experience of counseling will augment and be augmented by the experience of the classroom. It will be informal, individual, friendly, non-paternalistic, an extension of the activity of learning from the classroom to the conference office. Both experiences will be successful if the student, whether veteran or high school export, is stimulated in the activity of learning and in his reach for maturity.

The basic issue for the college of liberal arts is not, how important is counseling? but, how extensive and comprehensive can we make our program of counseling for the post-war days?

In support I quote from the report of the Baxter Commission on Liberal Education, (page 26):

This strategic opportunity can be met only if all that has been learned in the past three decades about student counselling is brought to bear upon post-war education and if the techniques now used are improved by their immediate collation and critical study Counselling wisely conceived and executed must be relied on heavily by the colleges in their attempt to help returning veterans to meet and solve their individual problems.

You may be aware that the American Council on Education has appointed a committee which is at the moment at work on a brochure on this subject—Counselling for Post-War Days. Copies of this study should be in your hands before the opening of the fall term and perhaps sooner.

To ignore the importance of this subject is to fail a stern responsibility and to miss a large opportunity.

III

Our third issue grows out of the student's concern for vocational success. It is an inevitable corollary of the word spoken on counseling, and is not, I believe, in contradiction to the cautions listed on the need of maintaining liberal

arts standards and an educational integrity.

Recognizing that a man's contribution to a working society is a major source of personal happiness and of social usefulness as well as the common source of funds with which to pay the butcher and the grocer, how far shall the college of liberal arts go in helping him prepare for that contribution? Whether we like it or not, that is one of the issues within the fundamental question of objectives with which we shall continue to be faced in the period of reconstruction.

It is silly to suggest that the question shouldn't be raised, for it always has been with us from the early days of the founding of institutions when one of the primary aims was to train lawyers, ministers, and doctors. It is silly to suggest that it shouldn't be raised with us again today, for almost without exception, we find ourselves with our department of teacher training, or, if by chance we lack that department, we are probably knocking at the door of the State Department of Education for recognition as a teacher training institution.

The choice of vocation is obviously a continuing problem, critical in pre-war as well as post-war days. The difference for tomorrow will lie in the difference in the questioner. For tomorrow's questioner will be less passive, less patient with our fumbling, more mature by virtue of war experiences, more capable of accepting responsibility, more likely to bark for his Anglo-Saxon rights, and backed by pressure groups and a sympathetic public which will not brook our enroll-and-flunk system of negative guidance. On that post-war student will be the pressure of time.

We shall not be able to make answer until we have first cleared our own minds as to what it is we are trying to do in the liberal arts college. If our answer be that we are trying to immerse

our students in the cherished literary and classical tradition of a past civilization, in all likelihood we shall turn a cold shoulder to the cries for help. On the other hand, if we are persuaded that not only are we trying to allow our students to train to a new competency and a larger maturity their minds and bodies and spirits, but to prepare themselves to live effectively in the kind of society that may come in the days ahead, then our answer to the cry for vocational guidance will be quite different.

Even when the college may spurn contemptuously any program of so-called practical courses, there may well be given a wiser and more certain motivation for the contribution of the student to a working society. The college of liberal arts is not a training school; so we would agree. But in addition, if the college of liberal arts is to do its task and do it well, it must help the student to see more clearly the role which he can play in that working society and also to arouse in him some feeling of responsibility for a part well played. The purpose of so-called vocational guidance is not simply to steel the student into the job which some day he may do, but first of all to give him a sense of the importance of a job well done and to stir within him the urge to find that area of usefulness into which he can most adequately and completely fit himself with satisfaction both to himself and to the society of which he is a part.

This is an immediate question within a fundamental issue. We may make wise answer by constructive planning, or, by silence and inaction, we may give a negative reply.

IV

The fourth basic issue which I would name is one that I approach with hesitancy, and yet to omit it would be, I am certain, to leave the picture in-

complete. If it be true, as President Hutchins and others have affirmed, that the college of liberal arts has the two-fold objective of intelligence and goodness, a basic issue then becomes the measure of concern which the institution should hold for the developing and the maturing of the student's personal character and his social effectiveness. I am not speaking of an institutional relationship with the church or organized religion, although that undoubtedly comes into the picture. I am speaking of the kind of person the student is apart from his mental grasp of the content of our courses.

In too many of our colleges the requirements for graduation are the completion of 124 hours of academic credit and the ability to stay out of jail; although I am at once reminded of certain colleges, esteemed throughout the country, where the requirement is alone the ability to accumulate 124 hours of academic credit. At the present time our diplomas do not testify to character or to social usefulness or to that undefined "goodness."

Again, not new but intensified will be the opportunity of the college to make provision for the multiplied and magnified needs of the students on our post-war campuses for religious guidance and for assistance in building an understanding of values, both personal and social, and a philosophy of life sturdy enough to stand hard wear. I am not unmindful of the difficulties ahead for such a program; but difficulties do not make it less urgent.

The college dare not say, "This is the field for the church. Our hands are not called." The college must work with the church; but this will not be enough. The college in its own corporate life must make new places for concern for these needs—in the counseling program, in the extra-curricular life, in coopera-

tive efforts with groups who are devoting themselves to these problems, and in the instructional set-up.

War with its tremendously disruptive experiences will have raised more questions about the meaning of life, the need for values, and the relation of man to the universe and its Creator than any amount of foxhole religion can answer. There are bound to flourish on our post-war campus the resentments and frustrations, the loneliness and the aftermath of suffering which are the gifts of war. Our students in a measure never before known will have faced the experiences of the mutilation of life, of agonizing suffering, of death itself; they will have seen the bitterness and the cynicism, the antagonisms and the bewilderments within the army and within the civilian populations of foreign countries.

Such experiences are not forgotten over night. Scars take time for healing. There will flourish on our campuses questions which the textbooks do not attempt to answer.

All the extra aids we may be able to devise will be less than 100 percent effective if we are unable to lay the foundations for the answers in our classroom instruction. The extent to which we can go in that direction is partially dictated by the nature and charter of our institution; but most of us can go a long way if we choose to go a long way.

I do not mean that we should turn our class desks into pulpits. I am not advocating exhortation in place of instruction, or homilies as a substitute for classroom discussions. But until the classroom and the class instructor by direction and indirection, by suggestion and on occasion by direct word, first, recognize the importance of these existing queries; second, accept some of the responsibility for answering them; and third, keep the underlying assumptions

of the classroom in sympathy with their own answers and with the best answers the American people have to give, the queries go unanswered. If the classroom makes personal values unimportant, they are not likely to become important outside the classroom. If the classroom looks on the present as the helpless repetition of the past, the challenge of the present goes unaccepted outside the classroom. If the classroom sees no reason whatever to assume the possibility of God in the process of life, such assumption is not likely to be made outside the classroom.

The answer to these needs of the students of our post-war campuses—yes, and our post-post-war campuses—will not be made alone by the church or by associated agencies or by extracurricular college programs. Of major importance are the assumptions and the instruction of the classroom. The student may shirk our assignments and may welcome reason for avoiding our classes, but, nevertheless, he grants the classroom and the instructor an authority and a wisdom which are greater than any other source known to him at that period.

The nature and the extent of the assistance which we can give is a basic issue for our colleges of liberal arts in post-war days.

CONCLUSION

I have suggested four basic issues for colleges of liberal arts:

1. Having re-affirmed our objectives, can we then make wise and necessary modifications in our academic program to meet the needs of a changing and diversified student population, yet vigilantly hold fast to our educational integrity?
2. Shall we be able to meet the urgency of the need for inclusive counseling at all the major points of problems and tensions?
3. What is our responsibility for the student's place in a working world?

4. What concern shall we hold for the religious and moral instruction and direction of our students?

Have we been tempted to exaggerate the difference between our pre-war and our post-war campuses? We have always had older students and crippled students and foreign students. There have always been problems of academic

standards and counseling and vocational guidance and religious motivation. The differences, I suggest, will be not of kind but of measure. And if we can learn how to care wisely for the students in the days of post-war armistice, we may perhaps in that lesson have learned better how to care for our students on our campuses in days of living peace.

BASIC ISSUES FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD¹

ROY W. GODDARD
Rochester Junior College

THE point of view presented in this paper has been current for some time and of late is becoming more articulate. It is not the official view of our national association [of junior colleges]. On many of these issues, our association has refrained from formulating a policy. Indeed, our retiring president, Mr. Jesse Bogue, aptly stated our policy last January when he said, "It is my conviction that one of the great advantages of the junior college movement has been its liquid state . . . [As long as it remains so] it will be adaptable to the needs of various communities in America."

I shall endeavor to outline the scope of secondary education and the influence of the local junior college in making this general education available to all youth on a democratic basis. A curriculum will be suggested for post-war development; also an administrative reorganization of secondary education which in the minds of many seems most desirable for such a development.

THE SCOPE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In a discussion of basic issues, the fundamental concepts involved should be examined. All three papers this afternoon treat an assigned issue of higher education. However, it is difficult to find a fully acceptable definition of our subject. Educators seem agreed that higher education begins after high school graduation, but not all accept as higher education all the represented curricula. The term seems to embrace a considerable area of the formal study pursued

¹ The third address on post-war issues in higher education delivered at Chicago, March 22, 1944.

after completion of the twelfth grade.

High school graduation assumes an exposure to certain portions of secondary or general education. On a definition of this term, authorities may not be in full accord on minutiae, but there seems to be general agreement on the basic concept. Douglass¹ states that

Secondary education is that period in which the emphasis is shifted from the study of the simpler tools of learning and literacy to the use of these tools in acquiring knowledge, interests, skills, and appreciations in the various major fields of human life and thought. It corresponds roughly to the period of puberty and adolescence and to the ages of from eleven, twelve, or thirteen to nineteen, twenty, or twenty-one. While serving mainly as an effective institution for the education of the great mass of children and youth, it is also an agency in the selection and training of leaders in all walks of life, preparing them for advanced training.

In the 1940 edition of the handbook, *American Universities and Colleges*, we find the following observation: "In America, the period of general secondary education extends two years beyond the conventional high school course to the middle of the four-year undergraduate course in the standard college or university."

College curricula in the first half of the nineteenth century contained subjects now offered in high school. Entrance requirements to college were in content equivalent to half as many units as are now required. Algebra and geometry were not generally required for entrance until about the middle of the last

¹ Harl R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, pp. 4-5. Washington: American Council on Education.

century. Students were then two or three years younger when they entered college. These facts are cited merely to call attention to the historical development of some of the current concepts and the issues involved.

Today, the center of gravity of secondary or general education has shifted from the historic four-year college to the high school or the "people's college," as this institution is sometimes called—a shift which emphasizes the fluid nature of American education. In our early history, there was no uniformity in the responsibility assumed by communities for education. First, elementary education and then later the beginning of the secondary program as related to college preparation were assumed as a social responsibility. Then followed certain commercial, trade, and vocational subjects. Advocates of the state's responsibility to American youth were supported by Chief Justice Cooley in the Kalamazoo case when he stated,

We content ourselves with the statement that neither in our state policy, in our constitution, nor in our laws do we find the primary school districts are restrained in the branches of knowledge which their officers may cause to be taught or the grade of instruction which may be given if the voters consent in regular form to bear the expense and raise the necessary taxes for the purpose.

This pronouncement is developing into one of the fundamental concepts of the American way of life. It presents one of the basic issues of today—to make all secondary or general education available to all American youth and not to deprive so large a portion of high school graduates of the opportunity.

The implications of such a program suggest three developments: (1) the extension of the so-called junior college movement; (2) revision of the curriculum; and (3) reorganization of the administration of secondary or general education.

EXTENSION OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

To meet this issue, proposals have been made in Canada for the establishment of 150 junior colleges, while a similar program is expected to be enacted into law in Great Britain next month. To render a like service for youth in this country would require nearly two thousand junior colleges.

New York State is now considering the establishment of eighteen Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences to serve youth in the post-war period. These are to be established, maintained, and supervised by the State of New York as area institutions for vocational training. They differ from the typical junior college in two respects: they do not offer liberal arts and pre-professional training; neither do the institutes conform to the usual pattern of junior colleges maintained and controlled by local districts and municipalities.

Eighty-one percent of the public junior colleges are locally controlled and have nearly 90 percent of the public junior college enrollment. It is the conviction of most leaders in the movement that the control of the public junior college should remain in the local district or municipality, subject to such state regulations as may insure proper location, standards of work, and personnel. Where population and resources will support an effective junior college program, existing municipalities or districts should be utilized. Elsewhere, districts should be consolidated to include sufficient resources and population. This type of district has been used in California and to some extent in other states.

Local or district administration of education conforms to the American pattern of democracy. Adequate education for the greatest possible number of our youth also conforms to our pattern and is fundamental in any democracy. In-

quiries evaluating the democratization of the local public junior college indicate its superiority.

Leonard V. Koos has recently completed a study, soon to be published, of almost twelve thousand graduates from sixty-one high schools. About one-fourth of these graduates were in systems without junior colleges, another fourth in systems with tuition-charging junior colleges, and the remainder were graduates of high schools in districts with tuition-free units. These students were divided into higher and lower socio-economic groups. In systems with junior colleges, the median percentage of all graduates continuing into the collegiate level was almost two and one-half times over systems without junior colleges; and for the lower economic group the ratio of increase was over three and one-half. Koos also reveals in this study that the local public junior college secures a greater degree of democratization by drawing into its student body a more representative percentage of the higher and lower socio-economic groups than any other type of institution of higher education. Democratization is most marked in tuition-free public junior college under local control.

Another advantage of local control is the ability to resist standardization, which too often results from control at a distance. Also, communities thus organized are in a better position to resist the pressure found in some states to reduce the junior college to a purely vocational or technical school. These advantages, with others, account for the overwhelming percentage of local junior colleges.

THE POST-WAR CURRICULUM

The curriculum of such a nation-wide program of secondary education should fall under two general classifications: (1) General education for the group who

will continue in college and also for that larger group whose graduation will terminate formal study. (2) Vocational training such as that contemplated in the New York program and now found in a considerable portion of our junior colleges.

The courses offered those who will continue in college must for the present be determined in some measure by institutions receiving our students. The score or more of investigations reporting on the success of junior college students after transferring to our colleges and universities indicate that we are justified in continuing this function. A recent survey by Walter C. Eells¹ suggests that perhaps too much emphasis has been placed on the traditional college preparatory program. Eells investigated the record of 2,080 graduates of terminal curricula who transferred to a total of 319 institutions of higher learning. When the study was completed, 56 percent were either graduated or still in residence. Only 5 percent withdrew for poor scholarship. The remaining 39 percent withdrew for non-academic reasons. Further investigation and experience may prove that the so-called terminal curricula have more merit as a college preparatory program than some of us have realized.

If such should be the case we may be permitted to develop on the junior college level a program of general education more definitely embodying the seven cardinal principles of education. Less emphasis could then be placed on the differentiation between college preparatory and terminal curricula and more on the development of survey courses in the humanities, science, social science, the home arts, health—both mental and

¹ Walter C. Eells, "Success of Transferring Graduates of Junior College Curricula," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XVIII (July, 1943), 372-98.

physical—all of which would constitute the core curriculum. Elective courses should supplement the program so that the student may explore some field of learning in more detail as his interests and abilities develop. A program of guidance should assist the student in discovering these abilities and interests, and then an opportunity afforded for creative expression. An intelligent weighing of all values in an effort to understand our complex society and a formulation of a philosophy of life which places spiritual values above the materialism of today should certainly be made a major objective of general education.

A common criticism of courses offered through the high school and junior college level is that overlapping and duplication are often found in history, English, and some other fields. Junior colleges are in an advantageous position to improve the curriculum by seeking a better articulation of subject matter and content throughout the secondary level. To bring about this articulation in Rochester, we have found that departmental meetings of junior and senior high school and junior college staff are beneficial. Instead of an unplanned overlapping of subject matter, we are seeking a planned sequence and development. A report of the American Historical Society,¹ just published, indicates what may be accomplished in this way in organizing the study of American history. This report recommends the minimum content of American history courses at the various levels of instruction. It particularly emphasizes the problem of duplication in the content of

courses in American history, and suggests a solution by planning an overlapping or review as the study of American history progresses through successive grades and through college. A similar study and report should be made in other fields of learning. These would materially assist in organizing survey courses of core curricula offering a broader and richer cultural background. More subject matter or content could be included, for time would be saved by eliminating unnecessary duplication of subject matter. Close association of the high school and junior college offers a great opportunity for this needed development.

The third type of curriculum being developed in the junior colleges today, and the one which will receive greater emphasis in the post-war period, is vocational training. Such a program should contain certain core subjects designed to promote as much as possible the objectives of general education outlined above. Some junior colleges have conducted surveys to determine the need of vocational training in their respective communities, and others are under way or are contemplated. As a result, courses will no doubt fall into two categories: one for the returned service man and the other for the high school graduate.

Where our vocational curriculum is not flexible enough to meet the needs of the returned soldier we may have to offer some short, accelerated courses designed to train for peace-time pursuits, just as in the past we trained for wartime purposes. Many educators feel that no small portion of the returned service men will want to get into peaceful employment at the earliest possible time and will be impatient with too many educational trimmings. It is the feeling of many that one of the great services

¹ Edgar B. Wesley, Director of the Committee Report, *American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association*. New York: The Mississippi Valley Historical Association and the National Council for the Social Studies, 1944.

the junior college can render is to offer this vocational training as a part of the rehabilitation program.

The Post War Committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges, with Lounsbury,¹ of San Bernardino, California, as chairman, states that in addition to the demobilized armed forces there will be the workers of closed war plants seeking adjustment. There will also be "thousands of oncoming high school students whose aims will be shifted" from war-time objectives to those of peace. This shift in the objectives of our population will test the resourcefulness of educators everywhere and will influence all curricula.

Underlying all these adjustments in our educational program should be the realization on the part of all of us as educators, that for many of these youth we are giving them their last formal education in an effort to prepare them for the complexities of the post-war world—of which we ourselves are uninformed. We must transmit to them the best of what is left of our past culture and supply knowledge for an informed judgment in the problems facing them.

ORGANIZATION OF ADMINISTRATION

The type of administrative organization for a complete educational program through secondary levels has been a moot question for years. The numerically preponderant types at present are the 8-4-2 and the 6-3-3-2 with some variations. An increasing number of institutions have in recent years been committed to the 6-4-4 organization, the upper unit including eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades. The arguments most commonly advanced for such an organization are economy of cost and time, better oppor-

tunity for continued guidance through the adolescent period, the more effective administration of a vocational program, and the better articulation of subject matter. Another reason has emerged as a result of the investigation by Koos previously referred to. He finds as a result of an analysis of enrollments in thirty free-tuition junior colleges of various types of organization that the four-year unit achieves a greater degree of democratization by having enrollments more representative of the socio-economic groups in each community.

The four-year unit seems to be increasing in favor with administrators. Preference for the 6-4-4 plan is disclosed in another study recently made by Koos.¹ For this inquiry he interviewed a hundred administrators including deans, superintendents, and high school principals in districts maintaining junior colleges. About three-fifths of all administrators interviewed preferred the 6-4-4 plan of organization. In his report, the author states that in a grouping of positions held, more than one-half of the deans and more than two-thirds of the superintendents preferred the 6-4-4 plan. Less than one-third of the deans and about one-sixth of the superintendents preferred the separate two-year junior college unit. It is interesting to note that of the high school principals interviewed, one-half preferred the 6-4-4 plan. Koos found that the reasons advanced more frequently for preferring this plan of organization were as follows: It encourages continuity of curriculum, it stabilizes by achievement a longer program, it favors financial economy, it encourages enrichment of the curriculum, it improves retention of students, and it affords homogeneous grouping of students. Should the

¹ John L. Lounsbury, "Some Problems in Post-war Planning," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (April, 1944), 360-66.

¹ Leonard V. Koos, "Opinions of Administrators on Organizing the Junior College," *School Review*, LII (April, 1944), 215-27.

opinions expressed by these administrators be fully representative of those in the junior college movement we may expect an extensive development of the 6-4-4 type of organization in the post-war period.

CONCLUSIONS

Finally, I should like to refer to the scope of secondary education and the manner in which it shifted from the college to the high schools, and to a phenomenal growth of junior colleges. We have seen that local or district control is more democratic in principle and better serves youth and community needs.

We suggest that general education throughout the secondary level should be enriched by developing a core curriculum which should strive for a well-rounded culture and an understanding of our complex civilization. Better articulation of course will aid this development. The vocational program should strive for the same objective. Each junior college should train its youth in the technical and semi-professional skills according to the opportunity and the needs of each community.

It is also to be noted that there is considerable sentiment for organizing our public schools where junior colleges exist

on a 6-4-4 plan as a means of more effectively attaining these objectives.

Increased popularization of education at the junior college level in the post-war period will make more imperative the classification of thirteenth and fourteenth grades as either secondary or higher education. Interpretation of the laws of California classifies the thirteenth and fourteenth grades as secondary education. One state, and possibly two, specifies that the junior college may give higher education and/or secondary schooling. This trend was recognized three years ago by the North Central Commission on Colleges and Universities when provision was made for measuring junior colleges by criteria different from those used in connection with the usual college or university.

If a clarification should be made and the jurisdictional dispute concerning the thirteenth and fourteenth grades settled, the fact should be recognized that these grades are the equivalent of the historic and now somewhat arbitrary classification of these two years as higher education. The post-war development of the educational program for American youth outlined in this paper will be assisted materially by the clarification of this issue.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL FITNESS

P. M. BAIL, Chairman

Sub-Committee on Physical Fitness

THE Executive Committee of the North Central Association, recognizing the importance of the fundamentals in the educational programs of boys and girls, appointed a Committee on Fundamentals which should have as its major responsibility the study of the effectiveness of instruction in the fundamentals. The Committee was charged further to establish means which would summon the ingenuity of each principal and teacher in establishing techniques and procedures that would insure maximum accomplishment of this basic task.

The Sub-Committee on Physical Fitness, a division of the Committee on Fundamentals, recognizes that the urgent need for emphasis on physical fitness to meet the varied and intensive demands of the armed forces has resulted in a tremendously increased tempo in the health and physical education programs of our schools and colleges. Committees appointed by the U.S. Office of Education with the collaboration of the Army, the Navy, U.S. Public Health Service, and the Physical Fitness Division of the Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services have developed bulletins which present wartime programs of health and physical education designed to contribute to the physical fitness of high school boys and girls. In addition, many State Departments of Education and City School Systems have developed wartime programs and courses of study to be used in improving the physical fitness of high school boys and girls.

Hundreds of meetings of administrators and physical education teachers

have been held to consider the most effective means of adapting the physical education program to meet the sudden demands placed upon it.

As a result of this increased emphasis, probably none of the fundamentals has received more attention than physical fitness. The almost universal interest shown by superintendents, principals, and teachers in the reorganization or establishment of health and physical education programs to meet the demands of the armed forces and to lay the foundation for a continuing program for post-war days indicates clearly the need for guidance and assistance in this area.

Suggestions regarding the improvement of health and physical education programs received by the committee include:

1. Preparation by a central agency of curricular materials which have been properly graded, adapted to various age groups, and which recognize the biological differences represented in the class section.
2. Inauguration of legislative programs for health, physical education and recreational programs.
3. Committees to prepare adequate post-war programs of health and physical education based upon the knowledge gained during the war.
4. Organization of improved teacher education curricula for health and physical education teachers.
5. Up-grading of licensing requirements for health and physical education teachers.
6. A vigorous rather than a half-hearted attack on the various problems involved in the organization and administration of effective health and physical education programs.

The Sub-Committee on Physical Fitness does not intend to duplicate the fine work already accomplished by the hun-

dreds of workers in this field by organizing courses of study or suggesting specific programs to be followed. Rather, it proposes to carry out the instructions of the Committee; namely, that of studying the effectiveness of the program by making available pertinent information regarding effective programs and techniques.

The Sub-Committee is in agreement that there are three major elements to which attention must be given if health and physical education programs may make their maximum contribution to the education of boys and girls. First, there must be a planned program of learning experiences designed to meet adequately the needs of each boy and girl throughout the whole secondary education period. Among other things, this program should provide for complete health and physical examinations, for the correction of remediable defects, for the acquisition of desirable health habits, and for the development of strength, endurance, skill, and knowledge that will produce optimum body functioning.

Such a program must provide for biological differences among individuals as well as for the continuous growth and development of the pupil as he progresses from grade to grade.

Second, classes should be conducted in such a manner that a maximum number of pupils receive a maximum number of minutes of vigorous, wholesale, and enjoyable activity during the period. The selection of activities to be performed by the participants during the class period is of utmost importance if the goal of maximum utilization of time is to be reached. Large classes in which only a small fraction of the total number of pupils are actively engaged has been the rule rather than the exception in physical education. Obviously, smaller classes

and longer periods might be one solution, but in terms of facilities and equipment available in a majority of high schools, at least for the immediate present, the answer seems to be a more effective utilization of the present time allotment, to the end that a larger percent of participants in each class may be actually engaged in appropriate physical activities throughout the period.

Third, measurement of the pupil growth and development which results from participation in the various activities, as the pupil progresses from one stage to another toward physical proficiency, should be in terms of established standards of attainment. Success in meeting the various standards should be recorded in a manner comparable to that used in recording other achievements of the pupil. These data should be of considerable value to the person responsible for individual counseling of boys and girls.

The Sub-Committee proposes to secure from member high schools evidence concerning the present status of these three important elements in the actual operation of the health and physical education program. Specifically, answers to these questions are sought:

1. Do you have a planned program of health and physical fitness that provides adequately for the continuous growth of each pupil in strength and physical skills throughout the junior and senior high school grades?
2. Are your physical education classes conducted so as to provide a maximum number of minutes of actual physical activity for each pupil during the class period?
3. Do you measure and record the results of individual pupil participation and improvement as he acquires proficiency in physical fitness?

STATEMENT OF POLICY RELATIVE TO THE ACCREDITATION OF FOUR-YEAR JUNIOR COLLEGES BELONGING TO TYPE II *

THIS statement of policy defines in general terms certain principles that will be followed in accrediting four-year junior colleges belonging to Type II. It includes brief descriptions of characteristics that will be examined as a basis of accreditation.

Junior colleges seeking accreditation will make preliminary application to the General Secretary of the Association rather than to the Secretary of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education and, on a form provided for the purpose, will indicate the type of organization and administration under which they operate.

The Secretary of the Association, with the assistance of the Secretary of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education and the Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools, shall determine whether an institution seeking accreditation operates on the college level only, or combines collegiate instruction with one or more secondary levels. Institutions of the first type shall be classified as Type I; and institutions of the latter type as Type II. In its dealings with the Association a Type II junior college shall be classified as a single unit, and separate reports will not be required for its different levels of instruction.

* Note: This report was prepared by a special committee comprised of G. I. ALtenburg (Chairman), J. E. SHEDD, and WILLIAM E. McVEY (Secretary). It has been adopted by the Commission on Secondary Schools, by the Commission on Colleges and Universities, and by the Executive Committee of the Association. It is published in this issue of the QUARTERLY so that all concerned may have ample opportunity to study it before it will come up for final action by the Association in April, 1945.

Applications from institutions desiring to be classified as Type II will be forwarded to the Secretary of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education. Applications from Junior colleges that appear to have a program closely integrated with a secondary school or a local public school system will be considered after information has been collected on special report forms adapted to the peculiarities of this type of school.

The examining committee for a Type II junior college shall consist of two members: one member will be named by the Board of Review of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, and the other named by the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools. The reports and recommendations of examining committees of Type II institutions will be acted upon by the Board of Review and the Administrative Committee in joint session. Institutions accredited under this procedure will be included in the list of member institutions, published by the Commission on Higher Institutions, and also in the list of secondary schools, published by the Commission on Secondary Schools.

MEMBERSHIP

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools will accredit and admit to membership a four-year Type II junior college that is judged to be of acceptable quality in accordance with criteria later defined in this statement of principles.

Eligibility for membership will be based upon the character of an institu-

tion as a whole, including all of the units within its organization. The rating given to the first two years of the secondary school by other accrediting agencies will also be taken into account.

PURPOSES OF ACCREDITATION

The purposes of the Association in accrediting Type II junior colleges are as follows:

1. To describe the characteristics of such institutions worthy of public recognition.
2. To guide prospective students in the choice of a Type II junior college that will meet their needs.
3. To serve individual institutions as a guide in interinstitutional relationships, such as the transfer of students, the conduct of student activities, the placement of graduates, and the selection of faculties.
4. To stimulate through its accrediting practices the improvement of Type II junior colleges in the territory of the North Central Association.

BASIS OF ACCREDITATION

The basis of accreditation will be the total pattern the institution presents. It is recognized that wide variations will appear in the excellence attained in the various characteristics outlined in this statement of policy. It is accepted, therefore, as a principle of procedure that superiority in some characteristic compensates, to some extent, for deficiencies in others.

ELIGIBLE INSTITUTIONS

To be considered by the Association, an institution must be incorporated as a nonprofit corporation devoted primarily to educational purposes and legally authorized to offer a definitely described portion of a curriculum leading to a degree, or specialized terminal curriculums. The curriculum should presuppose the completion of two years or eight units of a secondary-school curriculum as a condition for entrance to the institution. Before an institution will be considered

for accreditation, it must have been in operation long enough to make possible an evaluation of its program.

CRITERIA OF INSTITUTIONAL EXCELLENCE

I. Purposes

Every institution that applies for accreditation will offer a definition of its purposes that will include the following items:

1. A statement of its objectives in general education.
2. A statement of occupational objectives, if any, for which it offers training.
3. A statement of objectives in individual development of students, including health and physical competence.

This statement of purposes must be accompanied by a statement of the institution's clientele showing the geographical area, the governmental unit, or the religious groups from which it draws students and from which financial support is derived.

II. Faculty

An institution should have a competent faculty, organized for effective service, and working under satisfactory conditions.

In determining the competence of the faculty, consideration will be given to the number of the faculty in ratio to the number of students; to representation of the teaching fields; to the training of instructors in their fields of instruction; to group organization of the faculty; to faculty meetings; and to faculty committees.

Under satisfactory working conditions consideration will be given to the following: salary status; tenure; instructional load; recruiting, selection, and appointment; aids to faculty growth; and provisions for leaves of absence, retirement, insurance, housing, and recreation and community life.

III. Curriculum

The curriculum of an institution should contain the subject-matter offerings implied by the statement of objectives. In general, these offerings include provision for general education; advanced courses, when the purposes of an institution require such offerings; and special courses appropriate to the specific objectives which the institution claims as among its functions.

The organization of the curriculum should be such as will best serve the type of students whose admission is implied by the declared purposes of the institution. Responsibility for the grouping of curriculum content, by courses, departments, or divisions, will lie with institutions. The merit of a curriculum organization will be judged primarily by the manner in which it functions.

IV. Instruction

Consideration will be given to the emphasis placed by the institution upon teaching competence in the selection and promotion of teachers; to the stimuli provided for the growth of individual members of the staff; to the familiarity of the administration and the faculty with current discussion of instructional problems at the college and secondary level; to the concern for high scholarship in students; and to the efforts to make examinations a more accurate measure of student accomplishment.

V. Library

The library should provide facilities needed to make the educational program effective. There should be evidence that such facilities are appropriately used.

The adequacy of the library will be gauged by the following items: the holdings of standard works of general and special reference; the holdings of magazines and periodicals; the number, variety, and recency of books; the use

of the library by students and by the faculty; library expenditures over a period of years; the salaries and qualifications of the library staff; and the administrative practices relating to the library.

VI. Student Personnel Service

An institution should admit only those students whose educational interests are in harmony with the purposes of the institution and whose abilities and previous preparation qualify them to pursue the studies to which they are admitted.

In evaluating the practices of an institution, attention will be given to the provision for preregistration guidance in cooperation with secondary schools; to the criteria used in the selection of students; to the administration of the stated entrance requirements; to the assistance given students in analyzing their own problems and in adjusting to the life and work of the institution.

VII. Administration

In evaluating the administration of an institution, the emphasis will be placed upon the manner in which the functions are performed rather than upon the organization or the personnel, although the suitability of the organization and the competence of the personnel cannot be ignored. Attention will be given to such matters as the constitution and activities of the board of control; the general system of administrative control; the administration of academic matters, such as curriculum, faculty personnel, and instruction; the business administration, including financial accounting, budgeting, purchasing, the collection of revenues; and the supervision of the finances of student activities; the administration of the student personnel service; the administration of special educational activities, if any, such as summer session or extension

services; and the system of records and reports.

VIII. Finance

The institution should provide evidence of financial resources adequate for and effectively applied to the support of its educational program.

The items of information to be considered in determining the adequacy of the financial support are: the expenditure per student for educational purposes; the stability of the financing, as indicated by the amount of income per student from stable sources, and by the avoidance of burdensome indebtedness; and the procedures in financial accounting and reporting. In Roman Catholic institutions, necessary adjustments will be allowed for contributed services of instructors and administrative officers.

IX. Physical Plant

The physical plant, comprising grounds, buildings, and equipment, should be adequate for the efficient conduct of the educational program and should contribute effectively to the realization of the accepted objectives of the institution.

In judging the plant, consideration will be given to the adequacy and effectiveness of such features as site; general type of buildings; service systems; classrooms, laboratories, and other facilities appropriate to the special purposes of the institution; office facilities; library building; facilities for health service, recreation, and athletics; dormitories; dining facilities; auditoriums, assembly rooms; and the operation and care of the plant.

X. Institutional Study

An institution should continuously study its policies and procedures with a view to their improvement and should provide evidence that such useful studies are regularly made.

XI. Athletics

If the institution maintains a program of intercollegiate athletics, the same policies should prevail in regard to faculty, administration, and the management of students as are in force in other departments of the institution.

In evaluating the athletic program, consideration will be given to the following items: eligibility; distribution of scholarships, loan funds, grants of financial aid, and remunerative employment; methods taken to safeguard the health of participants; administrative organization; financial control; and competence of the staff.

I. PURPOSES

Since junior colleges differ widely, the only limitations placed upon the purposes of a particular institution is that minimal facilities for general education must be offered. By "general education" is meant that type of education which acquaints a student with the facts and modes of thought in the chief fields of knowledge, such as natural science, literature, history and other social sciences, languages, and the fine arts. Many junior colleges will wish to offer pre-professional training and terminal education curriculums of various kinds; an institution will be considered as performing its duty when it meets adequately the needs of the clientele which it serves.

A. *Clearness of Conception*.—An institution will be expected to provide in typewritten or in printed form all statements of institutional purposes which are regarded as determining policies and activities. These purposes should be stated in the official publications of the institution with brevity and directness.

B. *Scope*.—The complete statement of purpose should give the aims of each course in a four-year school.

Information should also be provided

showing all terminal and occupational curriculums offered by the institution, giving in outline the content of the curriculum, the conditions of entrance, the time required for completion, the enrolment, and the number of students completing the curriculum in the year immediately preceding. A pre-occupational curriculum will be regarded as soundly conditioned when the resources of the institution, including faculty, library, laboratories, finances, and other necessary facilities are adequate; when the enrolment of qualified students justifies the offering; and when the institution makes the proper intellectual and physical requirements for entrance into the curriculum and for continuance in it.

Since sound health and reasonable physical competence are everywhere considered desirable qualities, junior colleges should subscribe to provisions for health education and for the development of physical skill as a legitimate part of their educational program.

C. Acceptance By Faculty. — The building of an effective body of educational purposes should be the joint responsibility of the administrative officers, the board of control, and the faculty of an institution in order that such purposes may receive enlightened acceptance and sympathetic support.

D. Relation to Activity. — Agreement between the stated purposes and the practices of an institution should be apparent; the quality of an institution will be determined by the harmony between its stated purposes and its actual practices.

E. Clientele. — The policies and practices of an educational institution are inevitably influenced by the clientele whose interests the institution represents and serves. The clientele determines the activities of the administrative officers, the choice of staff, the content and

growth of the curriculum, the character of institutional procedures, and the income and direction of expenditures.

Most institutions have a local clientele; some, however, are agencies of social minorities drawn from a wide geographical area. The institution will be asked to provide data showing the degree to which its clientele is local, state, regional, or national. If the clientele is local, attention will be given to the extent to which competition from other institutions must be met.

A change in the enrolment of an institution may indicate a loss of institutional vitality, instability in institutional management, a disregard for satisfactory requirements of admission and achievement, or inappropriate curriculum offerings. In this connection, no curriculums should be carried in the catalog for which definite elections are not made by students. It may be accepted as sound educational policy, however, that the announced courses can be given only if the number of students enrolled in the course is sufficient to make economical administration possible and provides the community of interest essential to stimulating study.

II. FACULTY

This section of the Manual having to do with the faculty is sub-divided for purposes of convenience into the three parts indicated in the Statement of Policy: "Faculty Competence"; "Faculty Organization"; and "Conditions of Faculty Service." Within these three subsections are included sixteen criteria for the evaluation of institutions: seven under "Faculty Competence"; four under "Faculty Organization"; and five under "Conditions of Faculty Service."

FACULTY COMPETENCE

The seven criteria included in this subsection of the faculty are all ratios

or percentages which are statistically computed. For the first three criteria (Doctor's degree, Master's degree, and graduate study) teachers are not included in fields in which the normal objective of training is neither the Master's degree nor the Doctor's degree. The fields so omitted are industrial arts, fine arts, music, nursing, and pharmacy. For the remaining four criteria all persons doing any teaching are included.

A. Doctor's Degrees.—The percentage of the teaching staff as described above who hold an earned doctorate is the measure used for this criterion of evaluation.

B. Master's Degrees.—In computing this measure, the number of persons holding the doctorate is first subtracted from the number on the teaching staff, thus eliminating any overlapping between these two degrees. The percentage of the remaining staff members who hold an earned Master's degree is then computed as the measure for this criterion.

C. Graduate Study.—In substitution for the unsatisfactory technique of using "equivalents" of degrees, the average number of months of graduate study per staff member is used as the measure of this criterion.

D. Graduate Training In Teaching Subject.—A superior institution has a faculty in which all teaching staff members have adequate training in the field of their instructional duties. An unsatisfactory faculty, as measured by this criterion, is one in which there is little or no relationship between graduate training and instructional duties. The measure used is the percentage of the teaching staff who have completed not less than fifteen semester hours of graduate training in the subjects which they are teaching.

E. Professional Societies - Memberships.—The measure of this criterion is the average number of memberships in

educational associations per teaching staff member in an institution.

F. Educational Meetings.—The measure of this criterion is the average number of meetings of educational associations attended per teaching staff member over a five-year period.

G. Programs.—The measure of this criterion is the average number of places on the programs of educational associations per teaching staff member over a five-year period.

FACULTY ORGANIZATION

An effective organization will enhance the usefulness of a faculty; lack of organization will render an otherwise competent body of instructors less effective.

Under "Faculty Organization" consideration will be given to the following four items: student-faculty ratio, form of organization, faculty meetings, and faculty committees.

H. Student-Faculty Ratio. — The measure of this criterion is the ratio of the equivalent number of full-time students to the equivalent number of full-time staff members.

I. Form of Organization.—The organization of an institutional faculty will be judged according to the degree to which it facilitates the following function:

Representation of All Educational Interests.—Desirable faculty organization encourages initiative and participation by members of a faculty, first of all, in their immediate tasks of instruction; and, second, in matters affecting the general welfare of the institution. A good organization will give desirable unity to all of the activities and educational interests of the institution.

J. Faculty Meetings. — A faculty meeting should not be merely an agency for collective action. If effective, it will reflect the competence, the sincerity, and the morale of that body of individuals responsible for the educational welfare of the institution. The effectiveness of

faculty meetings will be judged by the following items:

1. *Frequency of Meetings.*—Since meetings that are held too frequently are a burden to the faculty, it is suggested that faculty meetings be held once a month.

2. *Conduct of Meetings.*—Agenda for faculty meetings should be prepared in advance for the information of all members of the faculty, and enough time should be allotted to meetings for adequate deliberation on matters that come before the meeting.

3. *Minutes.*—The minutes kept by the secretary should constitute the official record of the decisions of the faculty. Taken together over a long period of time they should describe all the important educational policies of the institution. Records should contain:

1. Routine matters of administration.
2. Student discipline.
3. Legislation regarding educational policies.
4. Faculty welfare.

K. Faculty Committees.—It is generally desirable to have two kinds of committees: administrative committees; committees with educational policies.

CONDITIONS OF FACULTY SERVICE

Like effective organization, the conditions of faculty service will enhance or detract from the contribution a competent staff makes to the education quality of an institution.

Under "Conditions of Faculty Service" are included five items: salaries, tenure, teaching load, recruitment and appointment, and aids to growth.

L. Salaries.—As a basis for judging the salary status of a faculty, the median and maximum salaries for the instructional staff and the median salary for the administrative staff will be used. The percentile ranks of an institution on each of these three salary criteria are added together to obtain a single salary measure for an institution. All salaries are reduced to a full-time nine-month basis, and only those individuals are included in the salary measure who are on a one-hundred percent appointment basis.

M. Tenure.—The policy of an institution toward appointment and the renewal of appointment will be considered on its merits. Since arbitrary limitations upon tenure and freedom are a discredit to an institution, any policy that makes tenure precarious for competent instructors is undesirable.

N. Teaching Load.—The measure of this criterion is the average number of clock hours (approximately fifty minutes) devoted to instructional activities per teaching staff member per week. The average number of clock hours per week devoted to instructional activities per staff member in public two-year junior colleges accredited by the North Central Association is 18.5. The average for the privately controlled institutions of the two-year type is 17.35. No data on this subject are available for Type II junior colleges in the North Central Association Territory, but the information furnished with regard to two-year junior colleges is offered as a guide to desirable practices. Teachers of correspondence, of extension work, and those teachers devoting less than ninety percent of their time to instructional activities in an institution are excluded in the above calculations.

O. Recruitment and Appointment.—The manner in which a faculty is recruited and appointed has an important bearing upon its quality. Judgments will be made on the following aspects of an institution's recruitment and appointment policies and practices:

1. *Agencies Involved.*—The officer responsible for the recruiting of staff members in Type II junior college is the executive head of the institution. The duties of the executive head may be delegated to or shared with deans, heads of departments and major members of the faculty.

2. *Data Secured.*—In considering an individual for appointment, use should be made of carefully collected data covering age, education, experience, health, publications, mem-

bership in educational associations, evidence as to competence in teaching and research, marital and family status, and general manners and habits.

3. Sources of Staff Members.—The basic sources of information are graduate schools and officers of institutions with which the individual has been previously connected. Membership lists of learned societies, programs of such societies and scholarly publications afford possibilities for helpful contacts.

4. Contact With Candidate.—Personal interviews between the candidate and the officers of the institution are needed to enable both parties to canvass their respective interests and the fitness of the candidate for the position.

5. Board Functions.—It is within the province of a board of control to approve the policies governing the appointment of members of the instructional staff and administrative officers. Such general policies should be a matter of record available to all persons concerned. It is not considered within the functions of a board of control or its members to initiate appointments or to act independently in making appointments.

6. Legal Appointment.—The essential legal step in the making of an appointment should be recorded in the minutes of the board and notice of appointment should be given the candidate in writing by the executive officer of the board of control. This communication should contain all the essential conditions of the appointment and, when accepted in writing by the candidate, should constitute a contract between the individual and the board of control.

P. Aids to Growth.—The fundamental conditions necessary to a faculty's growth in competence are salary and other provisions for economic welfare, security of tenure, freedom of teaching and research, and reasonable instructional load. Certain other means are now widely employed as supplementary aids to the professional growth of the faculty. The following is a list of these aids:

1. Traveling expenses in whole or part for attendance at professional meetings
2. Reduction of teaching load below normal for a semester or year without reduction of salary
3. Special library facilities in teaching field

4. Special laboratory facilities in teaching field
5. Library provision for books and periodicals relating to secondary and college education
6. Personal conference with head of department or dean regarding problems
7. Opportunity to visit classes and observe work of other instructors
8. Observation of instruction by other faculty members, head of department, dean or president
9. Organized institutional effort to improve examination procedure by use of objective tests, comprehensive examinations, final course examinations, etc.
10. Faculty groups organized for study of college and related educational problems
11. Sabbatical leave with stipend
12. Leave other than sabbatical
13. Newsletter on instructional problems from an administrative officer

It is not assumed that these aids are equally valuable or equally usable in all situations. The list merely enumerates the prevailing methods by which institutions seek to stimulate improvement of their faculties. The measure of this criterion is the average number of such aids shared per instructional staff member in an institution.

III. CURRICULUM

A. General Education.—For purposes of accreditation the term "general education" signifies acquaintance with the major areas of knowledge; it implies possession of the facts in such areas and some proficiency in the modes of thought involved in understanding such facts.

1. Range and Thoroughness.—The general framework should embrace offerings in most or all of the following fields: biological sciences, the fine arts, languages and literature, physical sciences including mathematics, and the social sciences. Wide latitude will be allowed an institution in the organization of these offerings in general education.

2. Articulation with Lower Schools.—The offerings of general education should be so organized that they are effectively articulated with the training that the students have had in the lower schools. An institution should be aware of the character of the work already completed by the students it admits, and

should be able to show that its program of general education is built upon the foundation which its students have acquired prior to admission.

B. Preparatory Education.—By the term "preparatory education" is meant those curriculum offerings that are designed to lay the foundation for continued study in institutions of higher education. It includes curriculums designed for pre-occupational training in such fields as agriculture, architecture, business, dentistry, law, medicine, mining, music, nursing, pharmacy, social service, etc. Elementary courses in these fields which are not part of a professional or technical curriculum, but which are designed solely for the purpose of enhancing the curriculum of general and terminal education, will be considered under those headings.

C. Terminal Education — By the term "terminal education" is meant specific preparation in vocational courses that will fit students for occupations on the semi-professional level upon completion of these courses. It will, also, offer to students who for economic or other reasons find it impossible to continue their formal education, an opportunity for a general education for citizenship. It includes, for example, such curriculum offerings as secretarial training, junior engineering, home nursing, aeronautics, dietetics, and home-making.

IV. INSTRUCTION

The instructional practices of an institution will be examined in terms of: the concern of the administrative officers for effective instruction; the degree of interest in student scholarship shown by administrative officers and the faculty; the solicitude of the administrative officers and of the faculty for the adjustment of instruction to the abilities, interests, and needs of students; the interest manifested in the improvement of

examination and of grading practices; and the alertness of the faculty to instructional problems.

A. Administrative Concern. — The function of the administration is to provide an atmosphere that makes good teaching possible and that makes superior instruction attractive to the teacher.

B. Student Scholarship.—A junior college should be aware of the abilities of all its students; it should raise student scholarship to the highest possible level, endeavoring always to keep achievement comparable with ability.

C. Adjustment of Instruction and Curriculum.—

i. Differential Abilities.—Teachers should adapt their work not only to the various purposes of the institution but also to the differential abilities of their students.

2. Organization of the Curriculum.—Testing techniques and other methods of discovering the educational aptitudes, interests, and needs of students may be used either to confirm the existing pattern of instruction as adequate or to point the way toward reorganization of courses and of instructional techniques.

D. Examinations.—A systematic effort should be made to discover more accurate measures of student accomplishment. To that end comprehensive examinations, objective tests, improved essay examinations and all other sound means should be employed.

E. Alertness of Faculty.—Faculty alertness to superior instruction may be shown by submitting techniques to the scrutiny and appraisal of others; by attending meetings where problems are considered and ideas are exchanged; and by keeping abreast of developments in education.

V. THE LIBRARY

The function of the library should be defined entirely by the educational program of the institution it serves, since it derives its purposes from those of the

institution. The staff should be competent and under professional direction. The librarian will normally hold academic rank as a member of the faculty.

A. *Holdings—Reference Books.*—The reference collection satisfactory to a given institution is determined by the existing curriculum. The collection should contain standard works of general references, such as authoritative dictionaries and encyclopedias; and special reference books in subject-matter fields, such as chemistry dictionaries, encyclopedias on religion, concordances to Shakespeare, etc. The reference collection will be checked against a selected list.

B. *Holdings—Periodicals.*—The library should receive and make accessible the better general magazines and newspapers together with the standard periodicals in the academic fields covered by the curriculum. The number of periodicals checked against a selected list is the measure of this item.

C. *Expenditures for Books.*—Expenditures for library books should be sufficient to cover needed replacements and additions to the book stock. The institutional measure for this criterion is the average annual expenditures for books during a five-year period.

D. *Expenditures for Salaries.*—Expenditures for salaries of library personnel should be sufficient to secure competent service. The institutional measure for this criterion is the expenditure for library salaries per student, weighted by enrolment.

E. *Student Use.*—The effectiveness of the library is reflected in large part by the manner and extent to which it is used by students.

F. *Faculty Use.*—The librarian and his staff should prepare lists of new and important publications in each major field for circulation to the teachers in such fields. A measure of the extent to

which the faculty actually uses the library is the average number of withdrawals per staff member per year.

G. *Relation of Holdings to Purposes and Curriculum.*—The actual number of books which a library contains is not a stable measure of the adequacy of the library. An institution should be able to show that its library holdings reflect the purposes of the institution, the curriculums offered, and the courses taught. An institution should have the most complete collection of library materials in those fields in which it has the most students. A large collection relating to subjects not in the courses offered will not be regarded as contributory to the effectiveness of the library.

VI. STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICE

An institution should admit only those students whose educational interests are in harmony with the purposes of the institution, and whose abilities and previous preparation qualify them to pursue the studies to which they are admitted.

A. *Admission.*—The admission program of an institution should provide for the guidance of prospective students, based upon an evaluation of the previous record of such prospective students and upon estimates of their future success.

1. *Guidance for Prospective Students.*—The function of guidance in the admission program involves, first, helping students determine whether or not they have the potential capacity and interest to profit sufficiently by attending junior college; and, second, counseling students in regard to the choice of an institution of higher education that will best meet their needs.

2. *Co-ordination of Entrance Requirements with Institutional Purposes.*—An institution should select students whose needs can be met by the educational program offered. Entrance requirements that stipulate a certain number of high school units, particular subject matter, acceptable performance, qualities of personality, test ratings, and recommendations should contribute to a better selection of students in terms of the purposes of the institution.

B. Orientation.—It is good practice for an institution to set aside some time prior to the beginning of class instruction for orientation purposes. The program followed in this orientation period includes general lectures, and group and individual conferences between representatives of the institution and the new students.

1. *Group Conferences.*—Economy in the use of time suggests that group conferences including general lectures by administrative and teaching staff members are among the best methods of informing new students in regard to facilities, right attitudes, aims and objectives of the institution.

2. *Individual Conferences.*—When the needs of new students can be met better by individual conferences, an opportunity should be provided for advice and counsel, personally and directly, from a qualified adviser.

3. *Placement Tests.*—The testing program, wisely administered, is an important part of the procedure during the first few days. The information yielded by the tests should be available before registration; the utilization of such diagnostic service at the beginning of a student's career in junior college is an important phase of the orientation program.

4. *Registration Procedure.*—When the student registers, the adviser should have all available data that will be of assistance to him in making decisions regarding the student.

C. Student Records.—Student records are to two types, academic and non-academic. Duplication of some parts of the academic records may be desirable on the nonacademic record form.

1. *Academic Records—Type.*—Academic records should include the official history of the student's academic career at the institution and a summary of his previous scholastic work. Transcripts of such records should show all official actions relating to the student's academic status.

2. *Academic Records—Methods.*—Changes in the original entries on academic records should not be made except by faculty action or by the authorization of a duly appointed representative of the faculty. Responsibility for keeping and making available academic records should be definitely lodged with some administrative officer—with the registrar where such an officer exists.

3. *Academic Records—Protection and Filing.*

—All academic records of students should be preserved and protected as permanently and adequately as possible. A fireproof vault affords the greatest protection.

4. *Nonacademic Records.*—Various types of information are included in nonacademic records, such as the results of tests, summaries of interviews, special reports from instructors, health notes, class load, employment, participation in activities, family history, and vocational interests.

D. Counseling Program.—The need for counseling junior college students on many phases of their life—educational, vocational, social, personal, and moral—is becoming increasingly recognized. Institutions vitally interested in these activities are making definite provisions to see that counseling needs are adequately cared for and that competent counselors are available.

E. Counseling Procedures.—Among those counseling procedures which are of importance in most institutions are the following:

1. Selection of curriculum and courses.
2. Diagnosis of academic difficulties.
3. Choice of vocation.
4. Formulation of standards of conduct.
5. Adjustment of personal difficulties.
6. Promotion of scholarship.

In any institution a large proportion of the student body is made up of individuals who do passing work or better, who have no educational, vocational, or personal problems of consequence, and who seek no assistance from faculty advisers or counselors. Careful attention will be given to the means employed by counselors and others in reaching this group. Scholarship should be promoted in this group as well as in the less promising.

F. Extra-Curricular Activities.—Consideration will be given to the attitude and policy of the institution toward activities. Activities are an essential part of the educational process and contribute to the all-round development of the individual. Care should be taken, how-

ever, to guard against the overemphasis of any activity on the part of any individual student or of any group of students.

G. Financial Aids.

1. *Loans*.—Where loan funds are available, it is important that all students receiving such aids shall understand the conditions under which the loans are made and the exact obligations that each recipient of such aid undertakes. Good business practice dictates that all loans shall be covered by notes drawn in legal form and executed in the business office of the institution.

2. *Scholarships*.—Scholarships may reasonably be granted under many different conditions always provided, however, that they are awarded primarily on the basis of excellence of the scholastic records.

3. *Grants of Aid*.—Grants of aid, such as remitting or reducing tuition or fees, given to students for reasons other than high scholastic standing, should be sharply distinguished from scholarships. These grants should be in keeping with the aims and purposes of the institution.

H. *Health Service*.—No institution can escape responsibility for the physical and mental health of its students. The specific procedures will vary in different institutions, but evidence will be sought to show that each institution recognizes such responsibility.

I. *Housing and Boarding*.—Housing and boarding facilities, if provided, should be under the supervision and control of the institution. Care should be exercised to see that proper sanitary conditions exist and adequate provisions should be made for regular inspections.

J. *Placement*.—Institutions are called upon to perform two kinds of placement service: part-time employment for students in college; and employment for graduates.

1. *Part-time Work*.—An institution that admits students who have to earn part or all of their expenses while in junior college assumes the obligation of assisting the students to find such employment. In assigning a student to a position, consideration should be given to the nature of the work and to the effect of the

work upon the student's educational progress.

2. *Graduate Placement*.—No institution is obligated to place its graduates, but it should maintain contacts with persons in the occupations for which it is training its students and should inform students about employment conditions.

3. *Follow-up Program*.—The placement services of the institution should likewise be extended to deserving graduates.

K. *Student Discipline*.—Effective discipline is reflected in the morale of the student body. Attention will be given to the attitude of the institution toward discipline and to the methods used in enforcing discipline.

VII. ADMINISTRATION

An effective administrative organization is an essential characteristic of a good educational institution. This does not mean that every school should have exactly the same pattern of offices and lines of responsibility, but only that the junior college should have a plan of organization and procedure that is effective in its own situation. Administration is only a means to an end, not an end in itself. The purpose of administration is to facilitate the achievement of the purposes of the college.

A. *General Control*.—Any influences on policies that may be exercised by the constituency as a whole, or by specially interested groups, should operate through the regularly constituted officials of the institution.

1. *Length of Term of Board Members*.—The term of membership on the board of control should be long enough to permit a new member to become thoroughly acquainted with the duties and obligations of his office before he reaches the midpoint of his term.

2. *Overlapping of Board Membership*.—The terms of membership on the board of control should be arranged so that at least two-thirds of the members will have had at least one year of experience in this service. Ex-officio membership should be disregarded in determining whether two-thirds of the members will have had one year of experience in the position; but

even with the ex-officio membership included, a majority of the members should always be familiar with the work of the board.

3. *Officers Responsible to the Board.*—The policies of the board of control should be such as to attract and retain the services of well-qualified and competent instructors. It should be the policy of the board of control to employ, promote, demote, and discharge instructors only upon the recommendation of the administrative head of the system.

4. *Functions of the Board and its Committees.*—The general functions of the board and its committees should be the consideration and approval of policies rather than the execution of these policies. The board may act, either directly or through committees, on any questions in which its legal responsibilities are involved (for example, the signing of contracts or of court actions) or on matters affecting the administration of invested funds. On other matters the board should act through its constituted executive officers.

5. *Independence of the Board.*—The board should have authority to make final decisions affecting the institution. An arrangement whereby some higher agency is given the power to review and to reverse the actions of the board of control is not in accord with good practice.

B. *Personnel for Administrative Service.*—The number of officers needed for administrative service in a junior college depends upon the number of students and faculty and upon the scope of the program offered. The time of the teaching staff is commonly used for administrative service; consequently, it is difficult to determine the number of executive officers needed for any particular type of school.

The executive head of the junior college should be a competent school administrator who possesses at least a Master's degree from an institution of higher education accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools or by one of the other regional accrediting associations, and who has completed courses on the collegiate level appropriate to administrative work, e.g., general administration, sec-

ondary and junior college administration, curriculum making, supervision of instruction, personnel and guidance, educational psychology, and philosophy of education.

C. *Curriculum Administration.*—The faculty, or a faculty committee, should have control of the construction and revision of curriculums and of determining the requirements for various certificates and diplomas.

D. *Business Administration.*—

I. *Organization for Business Administration.*—

(a) *Relation of Business Administration to General Control.*—The chief business officer should be under the control of the president or other chief executive officer of the institution and responsible to him rather than directly to the board of control.

(b) *Centralization of Business Administration.*—All business functions should be centralized under one official head. The following are typical of such business functions:

- (1) Purchasing laboratory supplies and equipment
- (2) Purchasing other academic supplies
- (3) Purchasing dormitory and janitorial supplies
- (4) Purchasing dining-hall supplies
- (5) Purchasing athletic supplies
- (6) Arranging transportation for athletic teams
- (7) Preparation of purchase orders
- (8) Collection of student academic charges
- (9) Collection of charges for board and room
- (10) Collection of student-activity fees
- (11) Collection of student loans and interest
- (12) Collection of revenues from investments
- (13) Collection of revenues from plays, concerts, and other such events given by student organizations
- (14) Collection of revenue from public performances given by academic departments
- (15) Collection of revenue from athletic events
- (16) Collection of pledges to endowment, plant funds, and current funds.
- (17) Keeping purchases for various departments within budget appropriations
- (18) Keeping financial accounts for current funds

- (19) Keeping financial accounts for athletics
- (20) Preparing financial reports
- (21) Payment of bills and accounts

2. Financial Accounting.—Besides providing the usual safeguards for the integrity of the funds of the institution, the general accounting system should be set up in a manner to facilitate the making of financial reports, as suggested by the National Committee on Standard Reports for Institutions of Higher Education. Provision should be made for an annual audit by a Certified Public Accountant. In the accounting system a sharp distinction should be made between the various types of funds. The classification should include the following five categories, in so far as the institution has funds of the type concerned:

- (a) Current funds
- (b) Student-loan funds
- (c) Endowment and other nonexpendable funds
- (d) Plant funds
- (e) Agency funds

3. The Budget.—

(a) *Preparation of the Budget.*—Any budget which contemplates an educational program providing for expenditures in excess of the revenue that may reasonably be expected is unsatisfactory. The preparation of the budget for a given academic year should be begun in sufficient time to allow for its completion before the date set for approval by the board of control.

(b) *Items to be Included in the Budget.*—In order to be meaningful to all concerned, a budget should show at least six types of information:

- (1) The proposed financial program for the last completed fiscal year
- (2) The actual results for the last fiscal year
- (3) The budget for the current year
- (4) Present estimate for outcome of the current year
- (5) The proposed budget for the new year
- (6) The increase or decrease of each item as compared with the actual results of last year

VIII. FINANCE

There should be evidence that an institution has adequate financial support to provide the instruction and services which are stated and implied in its purposes and that such finances are effectively applied to the support of the educational program of the institution. No institution which is maintained pri-

marily or secondarily for financial profit will be accredited. In Roman Catholic institutions, recognition will be given to the principle of computing a financial equivalent for the contributed services of faculty and administrative officers.

A. Educational Expenditure per Student.—In order that the Association may judge the adequacy of the financial support of the educational program in the institution, it is necessary that accurate data be submitted from which the annual educational expenditure per student can be computed.

The enrolment figure used shall be expressed in terms of the number of students in full time residence for the normal academic year of nine months. The total annual enrolment consists of the average enrolment of full-time students in the two semesters or three quarters of the regular year, plus the full-time equivalent of the part-time students enrolled during the regular year, plus full-time equivalent of students enrolled in summer sessions or other irregular parts of the year. The enrolment of each semester or quarter should be that of a fixed census date, taken after approximately 25 percent of the time of the semester or quarter in question has elapsed. Part-time students shall be counted according to the proportion of the load they are carrying: for example, if the normal student load is sixteen semester-hours, a student who carries an eight-hour program should count as one-half; one who carries a four-hour program, as one-fourth, etc.

The total annual educational expenditure shall be computed as indicated by the National Committee on Standard Reports for Institutions of Higher Education. The total educational expenditure shall consist of all amounts classified as "Educational and General" by the National Committee on Standard Reports, except the items of Organized

Research and Noninstructional Extension. The items included are:

1. General administration and general expense
2. Resident instruction and departmental research
3. Libraries
4. Operation and maintenance of physical plant and other general services

The item of educational expenditure excludes expenditures for the support of auxiliary enterprises and activities, such as residence halls, dining-halls, student hospitals or infirmary, bookstore, athletic, and student union. Items of non-educational expense, such as annuities, interest on borrowed funds, outlays for financial campaigns, and forms of student aid not involving service to the institution (scholarships and fellowships), are excluded from the educational expenditure.

The annual educational expenditure per student will be computed by dividing the educational expenditure (as here defined) by the annual enrolment of the institution (computed in the manner previously described).

The amount of educational expenditure necessary to maintain a program of a given level of excellence varies to some extent with the size of the institution. To maintain a given level of effectiveness, other things being equal, a larger expenditure per student is needed by an institution with a small enrolment than by an institution with a large enrolment.

B. Stable Income per Student.—Stability of financial support may be demonstrated by evidence concerning the income from four sources:

1. Tax support or public funds
2. Endowment income
3. Continuing gifts
4. Income from students

C. Debt per Student.—Indebtedness in any considerable amount indicates financial instability. Attention will be given to: the amount of debt in relation

to the size of the student body; the history of the debt over the preceding five-year period; the relation that interest charges on the debt bear to the total current expenditure.

IX. PHYSICAL PLANT

A. Facilities.—The physical plant, including buildings, grounds, and equipment, should be judged in accordance with the accepted standards for these facilities; the plant should be adapted to the activities of the school.

1. Site.—The site should be such as to promote the effective placing of the buildings. A commanding elevation is desirable, if available, and good drainage of the site is essential. The campus should be attractively landscaped, carefully maintained, and should provide space for the various outdoor activities.

2. Buildings.—The principal buildings, designed for function as well as for attractiveness, should be of reasonably permanent, fire-resistant construction. All buildings should be kept in a state of good repair as long as they are continued as a part of the institutional plant.

3. Service Systems.—The heating plant of the college should be sufficient to maintain an adequate temperature in the buildings even in severe weather. Special facilities for ventilation should be provided wherever needed. Fire-extinguishing apparatus should be sufficient to furnish satisfactory protection. The buildings should be adequately equipped with artificial lighting facilities. The number of outlets and the type of fixtures should be such as to provide illumination whenever the classrooms are in use.

4. Instruction Rooms (Class and Laboratory).—Instructional rooms adapted to widely varying enrolments, should be conveniently placed and readily accessible to students.

B. Operation and Care.—

I. Administration of Plant Operation and Maintenance.—The business officer, or in large institutions the superintendent of buildings and grounds, should make recommendations regarding the selection, employment, promotion, and dismissal of plant employees. It should be clearly understood that one officer is responsible for the operation and maintenance of the plant, and that all orders and directions should be routed through the proper

channels of organization. Among the conditions contributing to effectiveness of the personnel are: satisfactory tenure, year-round employment with the usual vacations on pay, adequate wages, provisions for sick leave, insurance protection, arrangements for retirement allowances, provision for specialization and transfer of employees, and adequate supervision of the plant force.

2. Personnel.—An adequate number of efficient employees should keep the buildings and grounds in good condition. Special training for the work is highly desirable; it is imperative for employees who perform technical tasks. Examinations that reveal mental, physical, and technical fitness for the duty to be assigned should be given to all applicants.

3. Facilities for Service.—Adequate facilities for plant service should be provided. Work-rooms and shops and storage rooms should carry all the tools and equipment necessary for the jobs to be performed. Special cleaning facilities, such as vacuum cleaners, floor machines, and hot water are essential.

4. Preservation of Floors.—Floors should be treated with preservative materials in order to protect them against the wear of traffic, to preserve them against the effect of water, soap, and chemicals used in cleaning, to improve their appearance, and to reduce to a minimum the amount of dust from traffic or cleaning operations.

5. Cleaning of Floors.—The floors of classrooms, laboratories, special rooms, corridors, and stairs should be swept or dry mopped daily when in use, the cleaning being done after the close of the school day.

6. Elimination of Dust.—Every possible precaution should be taken to minimize the amount of dust carried into the college buildings.

7. Periodic Cleaning, Rehabilitation, and Decoration of Furniture, Woodwork, Walls, and Ceilings.—Woodwork and furniture should be thoroughly cleaned and polished; other surfaces should be cleaned and decorated as often as needed. Walls and ceilings should be in satisfactory condition.

8. Cleaning of Glass.—Windows should be washed on the outside at least three times during the school year, and on the inside at least once a month. Other glass should be washed as often as necessary. Inspection should indicate that glass is clean and unstreaked.

9. Cleaning of Toilet-Rooms.—Toilet-rooms should be clean and odorless, and the walls and woodwork should be in good condition.

10. Cleaning of Blackboards, Chalk Trays,

and Erasers.—Blackboards, chalk trays, and erasers should be reasonably clean at the time of observation.

11. Miscellaneous Cleaning Jobs.—Drinking fountains and fixtures should be cleaned regularly; other furnishings as often as necessary.

12. Heating and Ventilating.—An automatic temperature control system is especially desirable for college buildings. If a mechanical ventilating system is used, it should be operated in accordance with the accepted engineering standards, and kept clean and in good repair.

13. Care of Grounds.—There should be a definite and effective plan for the landscape development of the campus. The plantings, including trees, shrubs, and lawns, should be given regular care, so that they may present an attractive appearance.

14. Fire Protection.—Fire escapes should be free from obstacles and ready for instant service. Exits should all times be kept clear and in proper working condition. Exit lights and signs should be unfailingly in good order. Fire doors should be unobstructed and in perfect working order. Every precaution should be taken to eliminate sources of fire hazard. Apparatus for extinguishing fires should be liberally provided in buildings, especially near furnace boiler rooms; this equipment should be regularly cared for and frequently tested for effectiveness.

15. Special Work.—The janitorial staff may well be used for minor repairs and decorating jobs. Clerical duties connected with their work, such as making requisitions, signing receipts, keeping records, and making reports, should be performed by the plant staff. Other special work performed by the plant staff should include such duties as the moving of furniture for special occasions and handling goods delivered to buildings.

X. INSTITUTIONAL STUDY

An effective institution should be engaged continuously in the study of its problems. Inquiry will be made concerning the number of studies that have been pursued in recent years, and copies of these studies will be requested for examination.

A. Number and Value of Studies.—Investigations of institutional problems vary widely in character, in scope, and in importance. A study need not be of

great magnitude to be important; a number of studies of lesser scope, carried on throughout a school, may be as significant as a single large-scale experiment. Any investigation that seeks to clarify an educational issue, to demonstrate the validity of a procedure, to improve an old practice, or to institute a new one has value.

B. *Publicity and Use.*—The results of the studies should be made available to all who may profit by them and to all who are in a position to influence the conduct of the institution; publication of the material in some appropriate and effective form is, therefore, recommended.

C. *Attitudes and Financial Support.*—The faculty should have a sympathetic attitude toward the study of educational problems and a willingness to employ new knowledge in arriving at decisions regarding curriculum revision, instructional procedures, personnel service, and like issues. Reasonable financial support should be given to promising investigations.

XI. ATHLETICS

A. *Administration.*—There should be evidence that the program of athletics is under the supervision of the faculty. Faculty supervision of athletics is interpreted to mean any one of the following types of organization: supervision by the faculty as a whole; supervision by a faculty committee; supervision by a faculty-student committee, the faculty members being a majority.

The division of athletics should enjoy the same privileges, should assume the same responsibilities, and should be under the same general supervision as other phases of the educational program of the institution. The relations of the public, alumni, students, and other interested groups to the administration of athletics should be similar to the relationship that exists between these

groups and other divisions of the institution.

B. *Staff.*—The members of the coaching staff should be regularly constituted members of the faculty, similar in tenure and in method of appointment to other faculty members of similar rank, with salaries comparable with the general faculty scale, and with qualifications suitable to membership on the faculty.

C. *Financial Aid.*—The group of students who participate in athletics should not be favored above other students in such matters as the distribution of scholarships, loan funds, grants of financial aid, and remunerative employment; the administration of such matters should be independent of the athletic department.

D. *Eligibility.*—There should be evidence that students participating in athletic contests conform to the same requirements as do students appearing in other public programs and that these requirements, in so far as they refer to scholarships, shall be such that the institution will not be represented by students of inferior ability and achievement.

E. *Health.*—The athletic program should be maintained primarily in the interest of the students who participate. Students should not be exploited for the institution, and adequate provision should be made for safeguarding their health. Competent medical service should be employed; a medical officer, independent of immediate control by the athletic department, should have the authority for final decisions.

F. *Control of Finances.*—The financial control of the program of athletics should be similar to the control of the other activities of the institution. In checking on this point, attention will be given to such matters as the location of authority for the collection of revenues

from the athletic activities, the procedure for purchasing athletic supplies, the budgetary control of the athletic program, the plans for employing student labor in the athletic department, and the extent to which institutional indebtedness has been created in developing the athletic program. On these points particular attention will be given

to the deviations in the administration of athletics from policies that govern other institutional activities. The funds devoted to all phases of the athletic program should clear through the regular business authorities of the institution and be accounted for by them; the accounts for athletics should be included in the regular annual audit.

BOOK REVIEWS

New Schools for a New Culture, by Charles M. MacConnell, Ernest O. Melby, and Christian O. Arndt. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943. Pp. 229.

This book presents a sound point of view concerning the kind of education which is necessary if our democracy is to survive. It insists again and again that the school "must be itself a small American society" which meets the needs of all youth. To this end it must assume responsibility for general education from the kindergarten through the junior college period. This school will deal with the past, but for the purpose of understanding the present. It will deal with "real problems, actual materials and significant situations." This means that it will be concerned with actual work experiences, many of them concerned with agrarian life which should be a part of the experience of every individual. To be sure the school will recognize scholarship, but not for its own sake. Human beings are essentially *doers* and hence learning should contribute to more effective *doing*. The school will utilize the immediate and wider community as a laboratory for learning. This will be accomplished through trips to factories, mines, ranches and stores, as well as actual experiences in work. It goes without saying that this school will be democratically administered, which means essentially that the teaching staff, the parents and the students must share in the making of policies. The executive officer carries out policies, and makes decisions concerning policy only when immediate action is demanded.

The above discussion of the book might give the impression that the authors are concerned only with the exposition of the democratic ideal. On the contrary, the book describes a five-year experiment in democratic education carried on originally under the auspices of Northwestern University and the Evanston Township High School. Presumably it is the story of this experiment that is regarded as most significant by the authors. Readers will be bound to disagree on this point. Some will most certainly point out that the experiment falls so far short of the noble conception of education of the authors that it serves as only a weak illustration of certain aspects of the

proposed program. Others will turn to the descriptions of the "core" of the New School as the part of the book that will influence school practice.

The New School was started five years ago as a segment of the large Evanston Township High School. There were eight groups of students, two of each grade from the ninth through the twelfth. A large assembly room, seven classrooms and two offices comprised the physical set-up. One classroom was equipped for radio and reproduction. Another of the classrooms served as an art studio. About half of the work of the student was carried on in the New School. This consisted of a daily assembly, a two period core, and certain other subjects which were being taught experimentally from time to time. The remaining half of the student's time was spent in regular classes of the Evanston Township High School. Presumably the staff of the New School which consisted of a variable number of teachers embracing such fields as social science, language, and art, had no control over the work taken in the regular school. Despite this important fact the pupils, their parents and the teaching staff of the New School constituted the Unit of policy and program making.

The core as defined by the authors means the "central part of the curriculum taken by all students." More specifically it is that part of the curriculum designed to meet the common needs of all students. It consists of "(1) social relationships, which is the subject matter; (2) English, which is an important medium of approach; (3) science, which is the method used; and (4) the democratic way of life, which is the general purpose." The book is somewhat vague as to the exact nature of the unit of work of the core, but one unit, "A Century of Progress in America" is developed in some detail showing how the work was cooperatively planned and taught. Much emphasis seems to have been placed upon group and individual oral reports. One wonders from the discussion whether these reports were primarily for the purpose of bringing about an understanding of the unit or to develop language skills. At any rate the making of reports looms large. In general it might be stated that problems concerning the evolution of our democratic society constituted the

major part of the core. One suspects a neglect of problems of personality development, and of face-to-face relationships. Science, except as *method*, seems not to have played a major role in the developments of the units. Obviously many of the "essentials" were developed quite out of relationship to the unit.

The work of the New School was evaluated after four years by various means and was found to be good—so good, in fact, that parents insisted that the school be continued.

Excellent as the book is, the reviewer cannot conclude without pointing out the wide discrepancy between the "experiment" and the type of education proposed by the authors. It must be remembered, too, that the new school was only *half* a school. The students lived in two different worlds. If they were *not* different, then the experiment had no point. Which world was responsible for their success? Perhaps the excellencies of the "old" school compensated for the weaknesses of the "new." Then, too, one wants to inquire as to the extent to which the curriculum and methods of the New School have been carried over to the Evanston Township High School. This would seem to be the best test of success. Concerning this question, the authors are silent.

The final chapter is a "dialogue" carried on by the authors upon the completion of the book. It is hard to see what this section contributes except perhaps to show that the authors were still on speaking terms at the conclusion of the enterprise.

HAROLD ALBERTY,
Ohio State University.

Dictionary of Sociology, edited by Henry Pratt Fairchild. New York: Philosophical Library, 1944. Pp. 342.

This book proposes to provide a system of uniform and "precise definitions" of sociological terms and phrases. Wide use has been made of existing uniformities in the accepted meaning of words. This is natural and correct since sociology deals so largely with the common life of individuals and groups. The book seeks also to "establish new uniformities and precisions by selecting for authoritative support one or more various meanings currently assigned to a given word or phrase."

The editor was assisted in the preparation of the book by ninety-seven sociologists, ninety-three of whom were "contributing editors" who supplied most of the definitions. In many instances, closely related, and even synonymously employed, terms are defined by

different individuals. This fact does not appear to have created any marked inconsistencies or divergencies in essential meanings. There are, however, wide differences in the relative amounts of space required for the definitions of words and these differences appear to have little relation to the sociological importance of the words. *Abortion*, for instance, gets 110 words; *acculturations*, only 40. *Behavior* gets 8, while *behavior: sympathetic*, requires 500; *behavior: reciprocal*, 18; and *behavior: acquired*, 17. The definition of *belief* consumes 135 words and *Bolshevik*, 355. *Culture complex* takes 230 words; *culture diffusion*, 20; *culture type*, 14; and *culture pattern*, 19. *Prediction: sociological* requires 800 words to define while only 23 words are employed to define *sociological trends*.

This sort of inconsistency runs throughout the book and, in the opinion of the reviewer, suggests its chief weakness. It represents the varieties of opinion represented among ninety-three contributors as to what a sociological dictionary should be. Some evidently believe it should define in precise language the scientific vocabulary of sociology; others appear satisfied with nothing less than an encyclopedia treatment of each word; while a few contributors are content to express a personal opinion and let it go at that. Moreover, some definitions appear pointless. Example: "Social worker. A person engaged in social work." Again: "Individual ascendancy. Ascendancy of one individual over another." Some words are defined without adequate delimiting language and the definitions lack precision. Example: "Individual action. Action not influenced by the presence or activity of others." Again: "Individual satisfaction. Acceptance of and agreement with the hierarchy of values of his society by any individual."

In spite of the weaknesses of the book, it will serve a very useful purpose and will partially meet a long-felt need of sociologists. It is doubtful, however, whether or not it can accomplish fully the consolidation and standardization of the scientific terminology in the field of sociology. This is unfortunate since such a standardization of terms is essential to the coming of age of any science.

University of Nebraska
JAMES M. REINHARDT

The Humanities After the War, by Norman Foerster (editor). Princeton: University Press, 1944. Pp. vii + 95.

The function of the humanities has rarely

been as thoughtfully considered as in this small volume. There is a necessary contribution which they, and they alone, can make to a new and better world. It is of vital importance to all of us that the nature of this contribution be understood. The following patchwork of excerpts will convey only a vague idea of the book, which deserves reading from cover to cover.

The survival of American democracy depends upon the maintenance of humanistic ideals. Science and industry have placed at our disposal vast resources for good or evil, but have not and cannot provide us with a system of values by which to appraise their own achievements. Somewhere a rational system of values must be developed, outside science as such, outside industry as such, and yet ultimately operative within both. The assessment of values, insofar as human beings are affected, constitutes the unique burden of humanism.

We are fighting for a world in which we shall have sound, civilized values. We propose to make real the dignity of man, but our belief in his essential dignity has been impaired by our increasing failure to recognize what it is that constitutes and conditions human dignity. To most of those who place political and economic planning in the foreground, it seems to consist in having the "necessities of life," that is "the well-being of animals." In their paradoxical logic the internal excellence of man is found in the externals. If we are to escape from this confusion and from the terrible frustrations and disappointments to which it will lead in practical affairs, we shall have to achieve in the coming years an intellectual and a spiritual reorientation. To perform this supremely difficult task is the responsibility, the high and inescapable responsibility, of the humanities.

The humanities are disciplines whose special responsibility it is to strengthen our sense of cultural, moral, and spiritual values. They concern themselves with the arts and literatures, with man's moral and religious experiences, and with the more inclusive historical and philosophical perspective in which alone the insights expressed in art and literature and the insights of religion and morality can be at all adequately understood. They are disciplines in wise reflection, not in the narrow sense of solving particular immediate problems, but of seeing any particular problem in its proper perspective. It is the humanist's task to see things in perspective to measure tentatively

the work and doings of the human spirit, scientific, practical, and humanistic as well.

When we look at our colleges and universities, we too often find endless reflection without sufficient recognition of the need for commitment on intellectual and spiritual questions. The humanities, if they are to accomplish what they should as human and humane activities, must educate students in the techniques of reflective commitment.

There is a province of human life to whose interests and problems the most extensive knowledge or control of nature's machinery affords no entrance. Of good and evil, freedom and justice, science has nothing to say. The scientific vocabulary does not include such words as beauty or heroism, nobility or charm, resignation or despair, kindness or generosity, character or conduct. Not until you ponder such words do you perceive how narrow and inhuman is the view that omits them. How fantastic to suppose that the sciences, which are by their nature excluded or exclude themselves from the province of the heart and its affections, can minister to our most urgent and deepest necessities and, unassisted, build for us the society of our dreams.

To the arts belongs a glorious privilege. They have led mankind in the greatest of all its undertakings and supported it through all the wintry seasons of history. To them we owe the great unwritten principles, the immortal laws that have shaped and guided the conscience of the race.

What we need, educationally, is not an improved technique nor a new technique, but a new view of the world. Ethics falls in the middle of the problem, and by this is meant what man really is and does as we know him with precision and vividness in those hours of self-revelation recorded by the most trustworthy and precise recorders of human thought and action, the poets, philosophers, biographers, chroniclers, historians, letter-writers, saints, heroes, and intelligent rascals whose words and thoughts have been written down. When modern education ceased to be literary we gradually lost our understanding of the real nature and uses of imagination. We forgot that the disciplined imagination is ethical, and that it leads on to reality and truth. A nation ignorant of literature is ethically ignorant. A generation cut off from its inherited past is no master of its present. The liberal arts are not luxuries to be fitted into leisure time, nor mere decoration upon the sterner pattern of life. When such arguments gain

acceptance, that is the end of us as a civilized nation.

JAMES E. DUNLAP
University of Michigan

The American Story of Industrial and Labor Relations, by the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Relations. Albany: Williams Press, 1943. Pp. xx + 315. School Edition.

For a number of years there has been a pressing need for greater understanding of industrial and labor relations on the part of American citizens. This need has been intensified during the war period and may be expected to become even more crucial in the period of transition following the war. Schools have been handicapped in dealing with this area, in part, because teachers have not had adequate background for helping the students interpret data concerning industrial and labor relations; because this area has been considered as controversial and, therefore, many teachers and school administrators have hesitated to deal with it, and because of the lack of adequate materials. While social studies references have increasingly included material of a social and economic nature, adequate consideration of industrial and labor relations requires still more composite and less diffused sources.

The American Story of Industrial and Labor Relations is therefore most welcome. Two of the handicaps under which school people have labored in the past in dealing with industrial and labor relations are modified through this contribution of the Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Relations. In the first place, the volume provides basic data essential to the study of the area. In the second place, the fact that this representative and responsible group recognizes the need that labor and industry relations be studied may go far to encourage schools to include this area in the curriculum. The chairman of the committee, Irving M. Ives, states the purpose of the volume in this sentence: "If sound industrial and labor relations are to be assured in the America of tomorrow, means for the widest public understanding of the fundamental principles underlying them in practice must be provided." (p.v.). It is recognized by the committee that legislation alone cannot bring about desirable industrial and labor relations;

broad understanding and voluntary cooperation stemming from opportunity to understand different points of view must precede and accompany legislation designed to improve relationships.

The first section of the book gives a brief over-view of American economic life in 1790, 1840, 1890, and 1940. This over-view depicts characteristic ways in which people made a living in those periods, economic changes which were occurring, the predominant political and economic concepts in each period, and the role of the worker as our nation moved from a predominately agricultural to an industrial economy.

The second section includes chapters reviewing the experience and legislation defining rules for employers and for workers over the period of our industrial growth. In this section is included consideration of the yellow-dog contracts, blacklists, injunctions, picketing, and strikes. Procedures under the National Industrial Recovery Act, the National and New York State Labor Relations Acts are outlined and frequent reference to court cases defining these procedures is made. Other portions of this section cover collective bargaining, mediation, arbitration, workmen's compensation laws, wage-hour laws, social security and employment services.

A third section of the book reviews contemporary issues involved in producing for total war while at the same time maintaining our standard of living and building for the peace within our American tradition.

The volume was produced for use in the upper high school grades and in college. Its vocabulary would require that it be so used except for very specific reference in lower grades in the high school. Many cuts, charts, and pictographs are provided within the volume. The charts on the inside covers of the book would be in themselves most helpful to students. There are other very helpful charts indicating procedures in improving industrial relations. Pictographs are also provided which set forth essential social statistics (pp. 19, 35, 138, 169, 227). Although the cuts are taken from excellent sources, they do not adequately reveal the points which the authors are attempting to make in their text.

The reviewer feels that as a teacher he would welcome some suggestions of ways in which the data provided might be used throughout the text. Some of the activities suggested in "Materials for Further Study" indicate that the Committee was aware of

how students and teachers might utilize their own communities in analyzing industrial and labor relations. Further emphasis on this desirable feature would have been helpful.

The Committee recommends that a special course in industrial and labor relations should be offered in every high school in New York State and points out how much the content of the volume touches upon topics suggested by the State Department of Education for the social studies curriculum. The reviewer questions the desirability of setting up a specific course on industrial and labor relations in secondary schools. It does seem highly feasible, however, that this volume along with other objective materials that are becoming available might be used in American problems, civics, and economics courses. Furthermore, it would be possible to modify these courses quite extensively in order to give adequate consideration of industrial and labor relationships.

Excellent opportunity is provided through this volume to help youth grow in ability to think critically through evaluation of concepts of democracy, the place of property and free enterprise in our economic life, and the role of corporations and of unions. One of the underlying problems throughout the volume which students and teachers might well consider is the changing role of government in our political and our economic life. The pictographs referred to above provide social statistics which might well be used in contributing further to the development of critical thinking.

Two areas of labor-management relations are inadequately considered; namely, the place of agricultural labor and the increasingly important role of union-management relationships within industrial plants. National statistical data are used throughout the volume. Pupils and teachers in other states might substitute similar materials for those dealing with legislative developments in New York in order to make their study more relevant to their own states. It is regrettable that findings of recent senatorial investigations are not included, since these investigations in themselves constitute a large source of supplementary data.

It is interesting to speculate that such a contribution to education in this field has come from a state legislative committee. It is to be hoped that educators, textbook writers, and publishers will fill the gap and assume leadership in providing schools with adequate materials since up to now those available have

for the most part come from other than professional educational sources.

The problems involved in developing adequate materials on industrial and labor relations imply close cooperation between those who are employers, laborers, and educators. Extended interaction between these groups may result in the production of important and helpful teaching aids to supplement materials produced earlier. The volume under consideration here is a valuable contribution. Labor, industry, and the public will find that their interests are quite impartially presented. Schools will find it a helpful supplement to their libraries and a basis for the inclusion within their courses of a more adequate consideration of this most important problem.

THEODORE D. RICE
*Director of the Michigan
Secondary Curriculum Study*

*School Administration and Education
for Administrative Leadership in Towns
and Villages*, by Frank E. Henzluk. Lincoln: University of Nebraska, Extension Division, Contributions to Education, Number 20, 1943. Pp. 49.

The avowed purpose of the author, as stated in Section One of the monograph, is to defend rural life and to point out the possibilities of the small town superintendency in functional leadership. Starting with a survey of the place of the small community in American life, an historical review is given of changes that have been and are taking place in rural areas.

Section Two points out that the community school in rural America has a distinct function which cannot be attained by imitation of cities. The worth of participation of the whole community in planning is stressed and the desirability of the use of community resources as a functional process is pointed out.

Sections Three, Four, and Five are devoted to direct concepts and duties of the small town superintendency. Starting with an historical review of the office, the many divergent duties of the school executive in the small town are described. And yet, as the author points out, these seemingly unrelated activities make up a unified whole, that of furnishing educational leadership and direction to the whole community.

One finds the defense of the small town superintendency, made in Section Four, quite eloquent but hardly convincing to one who has held such a position. While there is satisfaction

derived from the service which the school executive can render, and while greater recognition is being given at the present time to this position, one feels that the author neglects the many disadvantages to the individual which are inherent in the office. Granting that small school superintendents in the past have often been poorly trained and have often lost their positions as a result, the fact yet remains that studies have been made which show that tenure of superintendents in small towns is usually brief and that some communities apparently make changes without much cause.

The monograph concludes with a description in Section Five of the sort of training needed by those who are to exercise educational leadership in a small community. Without any attempt to list specific courses, the author points out that undergraduate preparation should include broad training in English, social studies, science, mathematics, fine arts, educational methods and management and considerable participation in the fields of human growth and development and community relationships. At the graduate level there would be preparation in educational and social philosophy, school and community relationships, improvement of learning and instruction, evaluation and appraisal, school law and official regulations, business administration, atypical education and research.

A bibliography of excellent pamphlets and books on school administration in a small town is included. Quite neglected for some reason are periodical resources which often reflect current thinking more accurately than the former.

To sum up, the reader is impressed with the descriptions of the present status of the small town school superintendency and of its opportunities for service. He feels, though, that the disadvantages of the position are not adequately treated.

ALBERT J. HUGGETT

*Michigan State College of Agriculture
and Applied Science*

Guiding the Normal Child, by Agatha H. Bowley. New York: Philosophical Library, 1943. Pp. xv + 174.

The subtitle, "A Guide for Parents, Teachers, Students, and Others," indicates the audiences for which the book has been written. Such audiences, the literate and interested "public," have been more fortunate of late than they were until about a decade ago. Many

of us still have in shuddering memory the days when parents were told in popular books how to train, condition, regulate and inhibit. A pessimistic orientation viewed and depicted children as potential nincompoops, delinquents, or nervous wrecks who must be constantly jerked away from an imaginary precipice. Habits must be enforced. The twig must be bent. Disaster, projected onto the future by frightful alarmists, must be prevented. Prevention was prescribed as an exercise in painting the devil on the wall and throwing inkwells at him; it had the negative aspect of not allowing evil things to come to pass. It was the accepted custom to scare parents out of their wits and to make of child rearing an obsessively perfectionistic affair with rigidly observed sacerdotal rituals.

Great progress came with the recognition and the elevation to scientific verity of the fact that genuine parental affection, good faith, and democratic permissiveness are essential prerequisites of wholesale child development. Miss Bowley's book is imbued with this attitude. She follows the child through infancy, the pre-school period, the middle years of childhood, and adolescence. She sketches briefly but tellingly the phases of development and the everyday problems which are apt to puzzle parents and teachers. Though she is always reasonably specific in her recommendations, she never loses sight of the fundamental need for calmness, good-natured humor, and resourcefulness. She skillfully avoids the danger of inviting a too literal dependence on the particular items of her therapeutic suggestions. Throughout the book there are italicized sentences which can be profitably made the nucleus of discussions in mental hygiene instruction.

These are a few examples: "The golden rule about feeding is to be calm and unconcerned, and let meal times fall into the normal routine and not assume undue importance." "The whole training process [in toilet habits] should be treated as unemotionally as teaching a child to fasten buttons or to learn to count." "The excessively good child who is never bad-tempered, has usually poorer mental health than the occasionally naughty child." "Above all, do not increase the [masturbating] child's sense of guilt." "It is essential to reassure the [fearful] child in general ways, and let him feel sure that his parents are trustworthy, affectionate, and competent people on whom he can rely."

This (and everything else in the book) is

sound and practical and can be heeded by the average healthy parent and teacher. Unfortunately, many adults who rear children are themselves in an emotional turmoil and therefore incapable of the suggested calmness, affection, and reassuring competence. Miss Bowley is aware of this when, speaking of the treatment of children's anxiety, she advises: "Treat the parent: explain the effect of her attitude on the child and help her to overcome her own nervous fears." It takes more than that, though, to cope with parental rejection and compensatory overprotection.

Miss Bowley is rightly opposed to professional isolationism. She strongly advocates close collaboration of medicine, education and psychology. I believe that she exaggerates somewhat when she states that the Behaviorist school, "regarded by most British psychologists as too narrow and too limited in its conception of human nature, is still popular in America." I also wonder whether it is her British background that makes her plead that "the eldest in the family should have a few privileges by virtue of his age." On the other hand, it is to her direct experience with, and observation of, children at the Dundee Child Guidance Clinic that we owe the excellent chapter, "Children and the War," at the end of the book. This chapter constitutes an up-to-date addition to the *Preliminary Report on Children's Reactions to the War*, which was compiled in 1942 by Louise Despert. It confirms the insights which were gained by the classical work of Anna Freud and Dorothy Buckingham.

Miss Bowley's book, which has a good bibliography, glossary, and index, can be highly recommended. Neither it nor any other book will serve the parent or teacher who is too much involved in his or her own emotional predicament expressing itself in an unhealthy adult-child relationship. Such an adult needs personal psychiatric assistance. But it will be of considerable help to "normal" parents and teachers in their efforts to guide "normal" children. It is written in a simple and readable style and is full of persuasive wisdom. This reviewer hopes that it will enjoy a wide circulation.

LEO KANNER, M.D.
Johns Hopkins University

The First Five Years of the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum, 1937-1942, by J. Cecil Parker,

Wilmer Menge, and Theodore D. Rice. Lansing: State Board of Education, 1942. Pp. iv + 160.

Follow-Up of Secondary School Students. Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan, No. 1. Lansing: State Board of Education, 1943. Pp. 70.

Local Pre-School Conferences. Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan, No. 2. Lansing: State Board of Education, 1944. Pp. 42.

Youth Learns to Assume Responsibility. Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan, No. 3. Lansing: State Board of Education, 1944. Pp. 107.

In 1937 the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum got under way. Since that date many publications have been released under its auspices, most of which were designed for distribution within the state. However, the four indicated above clearly have more than local significance; indeed, they merit the attention of secondary school people in the country at large and are reviewed here because of that fact.

The First Five Years of the Michigan Secondary Study begins with the statement that by actual survey it was revealed that the high schools in Michigan in 1937 provided essentially the same instructional program as in 1920. The Study was instituted to do something about it and the book is a description of what was done.

The authors tell how the Study was conceived, what groups got together to plan it, where the financial resources came from, the philosophical point of view of the planners, and the methods of getting under way. In order to limit the activities of the Study reasonably, fifty-four secondary schools in the state were selected to be members of the Study. There were all sizes of schools—from the little village high school to the large city school, and the geographic distribution covered the entire state.

Agreements were worked out with colleges of Michigan so that students entering from cooperative high schools could have some freedom from the sequences required. There is a description of the process of getting these agreements, together with the list of the co-operating colleges and their reservations. Then

follows much material as to how data on the educational programs were obtained, evaluative techniques after the Study had been in operation, description of summer workshop experiences provided for secondary teachers, methods of obtaining information about graduates and drop-outs after they have left school, emphasis on the teaching of democracy and citizenship education, and many other items. There is much factual material on exactly who worked on the Study, where meetings were held, figures on costs, and the like.

The Michigan Study of Secondary Education deserves to be known as one of the three or four outstanding pieces of experimentation extant in this area. It ought to be better known. Anyone wishing to start an investigation or a study would find the experience set forth in this book invaluable. It is to be regretted that the volume is not as readable as it might be because it was printed in wartime with the necessary fine print and lack of adequate elaboration.

The authors do not say at the end of the book how much better secondary education in Michigan was in 1942 than it was in 1920 but one who reads the report cannot but feel that those involved in the Study brought their best efforts to bear upon its improvement.

Follow-Up of Secondary School Students is Number 1 in the series of pamphlets or paper covered books under the general title, "Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan." This seventy-page booklet contains specific information as to how the staff of a school could go about learning what becomes of those who leave the school either before or after graduation. It tells how to plan to follow-up study, describes methods in carrying out the plan and discusses what to do with the results. There is much emphasis on the fact that it is of no use to make a follow-up study if nothing comes of the results. There are a number of examples of the findings of studies and what use was made of the information. There are sample questionnaires that can be used for follow-up. One of these is postcard size and very simple while some of the others are very complete. Many of the mistakes made by

people who have attempted follow-up studies can be avoided by the use of this book.

Local Pre-School Conferences, Number 2 in the series, is intended to stimulate the use of the pre-school conference in planning the activities of the school year. The authors feel that teachers who do not participate in planning but who go to the principals' meeting and hear the announcements at the start of the school year do not feel that the program belongs to them as it should. They urge that from two to four days be taken at the beginning of the school year for cooperative planning involving the entire staff. There are a number of typical programs that have been successfully used in these conferences together with lists of problems that one planning a conference might expect to arise. There is a chapter on evaluation containing a simple evaluative instrument. The booklet should be of immense help in the area of the pre-school conference.

Youth Learns to Assume Responsibility, Number 3 in the series, can be used as a practical handbook for those who want to know how to teach students to assume responsibility and to learn the techniques of democratic self-government. Particularly helpful, in my opinion, is Part Two where techniques for helping students to share in determining policies and plans affecting schools are set forth. Information on how to share in classroom organization should be particularly useful. The book contains many specific examples of democratic techniques gathered from many schools in the state. The authors sum it up very well when they say that the preparation is to give students actual experience through the assumption of responsibilities of citizenship here and now by dealing with the problems and needs which confront them.

The writer commends all four of these books to all those who are interested in secondary education, not as light reading but as rich sources of information that would be helpful in solving many of our most urgent problems.

EARL C. KELLEY
Wayne University

